DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 378 814 FL 022 699

AUTHOR	Hatfield, William N., Ed.; And Others
TITLE	Visions and Reality in Foreign Language Teaching: Where We Are, Where We Are Going. Selected Papers from the Annual Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Des Moines, Iowa, March 25-28, 1993).
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-8442-9342-3
PUB DATE	93
NOTE	157p.
AVAILABLE FROM	National Textbook Co., 4255 West Touhy Avenue, Lincolnwood, IL 60646-1975.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Books (010)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Elementary Secondary Education; FLES; Global Approach; Instructional Materials; *Learning Strategies; Meetings; Middle Schools; *Multimedia Instruction; Parent Role; *Second Language Instruction; *Second Language Learning; Speeches; *Student Attitudes; Student Motivation; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Indiana

ABSTRACT

Papers in this volume are: "The Origin, Grittner); "What We Can Learn from Those Who Avoid Us: Why Some Students Do Not Study Foreign Language" (Mary Ann Pederson); "Exploring Student Beliefs about Language Learning" (Christine M. Campbell, and others); "Whole Language and Foreign Language Proficiency: Natural Approaches to Language Learning (Aleidine J. Moeller); "An Introduction to Foreign Language Multimedia: The Ten Most Frequently Asked Questions" (Sue K. Otto; James P. Pusack); "Try Music!" (Judith Weaver Failoni); "The Parent Factor in FLES" (Audrey L. Heining-Boynton); "All around the World: A Global Unit for Upper Elementary Students" (Christine Joslin); "Middle School Foreign Language: What Is It? What Should It Be?" (Patrick T. Raven; Jo Anne S. Wilson); "Second Language Learning in a Social Context" (Rose Marie Beebe, Kathy S. Leonard); "Reading Comprehension Assessment Measures: The Recall Protocol Revisited (Salem Aweiss); and "The Iowa Critical Languages Program: Developing Teachers of Critical Languages for Secondary Schools" (Leslie L. Schrier; Michael E. Everson). Contains 18 references. (CK)

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... to the Founders, the fourteen original Board members whose foresight and will brought the Conference into existence;

... to foreign language teachers, whose enduring dedication to their profession has nurtured and developed the Central States Conference through the years;

... to foreign language students, whose cultural understanding and ability to communicate effectively will, we hope, be the key to a better world tomorrow.

Visions and Realities in Foreign Language Teaching: Where We Are, Where We Are Going

Selected Papers from the 1993
Central States Conference

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CENTRAL STATES CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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Preface

This year marked the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSC). The Central States Conference has come a long way since the beginnings of "the friendly conference" and has gained a very prominent position in the educational milieu. CSC continues to strive to be a conference where dedicated teachers can come to interact with colleagues, gain useful language teaching knowledge, and keep abreast of the latest in foreign language pedagogy.

The 1993 conference, held in Des Moines, Iowa, in conjunction with the Iowa Foreign Language Association (IFLA), had as its theme "A Celebration of Growth: Dreams Become Reality." The theme and the festive celebration at the conference site reflect the silver anniversary of CSC and its twenty-five years of growth, a period that has seen dreams realized and goals come to fruition. Since 1969, the foreign language profession has progressed in many areas, as a short enumeration of current topics suggests: curriculum, articulation, teacher education and preparation, research, FLES, FLEX, full and partial immersion at the elementary level, middle school programs, interdisciplinary approach, cultural content, testing and evaluation, technology, proficiency, professional standards, and advocacy. These topics were exemplified in the 148 sessions, 28 workshops, and 4 focus sessions.

The keynote speaker, Dr. Beverly Simone, spoke to a welcoming conference audience about the challenge of educating students to live in a multicultural society and remarks from the governor of Yucatán, Lic. Dulce María Sauri Riancho, graced the Twenty-Fifth Anniversary Celebration Luncheon.

As we celebrate our past and look toward the future, CSC accepts the challenge of the changing world of the approaching twenty-first century and invites other foreign language professional organizations, our colleagues, and our supporters to continue to work together in unity and harmony to promote an increased awareness and understanding of our diversity and similarity. The uniqueness and mission of our profession revolves around communication. And communication is the key to understanding, breaking down barriers, expanding knowledge of ourselves and others, and as we hope, achieving the ultimate dream of peace in our world. The future is now!

Susan P. Walker
1993 CSC/IFLA Program Chair

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Introduction

William N. Hatfield
Purdue University

The Central States Conference had its twenty-fifth birthday in 1993, and the occasion was celebrated in Des Moines with another outstanding "friendly conference." This congress was a testimonial to the dreams and aspirations of a quarter century of professional endeavor and growth. It was a time to mark the progress and the numerous advances in language teaching and learning that have taken place since the humble first gathering of this conference in its new format, which was held in April 1969. Today's CSC, like the phoenix that burned itself on the pyre and rose from its ashes to live on, sprang from the demise of its predecessor, the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association. Evidence of the growth of the conference is seen in the dramatic increase in attendance at the CSC. Numbering approximately 1500 participants in recent years, CSC has exceeded the attendance of that first meeting by nearly threefold, when 560 registrants were recorded. This is a special commemorative issue of the CSC *Report* to honor twenty-five years of professionalism in foreign language education. What better way to begin such a volume than to recall the forerunners of our conference and some of the hurdles that had to be jumped in order to become what we are today.

Frank Grittner, editor of the first (1973) volume of the CSC *Report* that printed selected papers from the conference, has written an enlightening and entertaining exposé on the early years of the conference. His chronicle reviews the factual, the humorous, and the ridiculous in the events and attitudes that helped shape our organization.

Mary Ann Pederson examines why many of our secondary students avoid studying foreign languages and makes recommendations how we as a profession might counter some of the misconceptions and negative attitudes about language learning. Among many avenues that she recommends pursuing, she suggests that teachers help students understand the limitations imposed on them by time, place, and facilities to focus, rather, on learning how to learn. Directing our curriculum toward global issues is perceived as appealing more broadly to the interests of today's students.

In a related article, Christine M. Campbell, Victor M. Shaw, Mark E. Plageman, and Tammy A. Allen discuss student beliefs about language learning in beginning college-level language classes. They examine Horwitz's "Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory" and then present the results of their shortened instrument, which was administered to beginning students at the Defense Language Institute and Miami University. They conclude that knowing how students perceive the task and priorities of language learning will enable teachers to adjust methodology and curriculum as well as to effect change in both teacher and student behavior.

Aleidine J. Moeller addresses the need for whole-language instruction in foreign language classes. Allowing that language develops naturally, it follows that learning should take place holistically and not in detached segments. In a proficiency-oriented classroom, students are encouraged to experiment with language in all four skills in real-life situations in which there is a concrete need to communicate.

In today's complicated world of computer hardware and software, Sue K. Otto and James P. Pusack lead the aspiring hacker through some basic concepts of multimedia, hypermedia, interactive video, and CD-ROM, to name but a few. Through a question-and-answer format they help the uninitiated to understand the effectiveness of computer-assisted instruction and point out the nearly unlimited new achievements that become possible in classrooms of all methodological stripes. They explore such issues as the kind of equipment to buy, costs, and the availability of multimedia materials. The article includes suggestions on how and when to get started.

Because of the high interest that students have in music, Judith Weaver Failoni has written about using this medium in the foreign language classroom. She provides a rationale and reviews the literature that offers various activities with music to develop primarily cultural awareness and also listening and speaking skills. She describes how music can aid in developing reading skills and how it can be effective in literature courses. The article contains numerous sample texts and lessons in German, Spanish, and French that can be adapted for any classroom.

Two articles deal with foreign languages in the elementary school. Involving parents in language programs, especially in the elementary schools, is the topic of Audrey L. Heining-Boynton's article. She discusses the impact parents' participation can have on the school in general and then focuses on how one school system was able to create a FLES program because of the interest and initiative of one couple.

Christine Joslin describes a global unit in German at the elementary school level developed at Iowa State University FLES Institute. The unit deals with five major global themes according to the mandate by the State of Iowa that requires the integration of the five themes into all levels and areas of instruction.

Patrick T. Raven and Jo Anne S. Wilson describe the three types of foreign language programs commonly seen in the middle school: exploratory, follow-up to FLES, and entry level. They describe initiatives by the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers to aid in the development of middle school programs according to the state mandate that all school systems in the state will have foreign language instruction in grades 7 and 8 by 1994–95.

"Social Context and Second Language Acquisition" by Rose Marie Beebe and Kathy S. Leonard describes a program at Santa Clara University and the Iowa State University of Science and Technology in which language students spend time interacting with native speakers outside the classroom and learn about the target culture. Some native informants provide recorded speech that is used for linguistic analysis.

Salem Aweiss, in his article "Reading Comprehension Assessment Measures," examines the complexities and varied parameters of retelling information taken from a given text while applying an individual's own personal skills and back-

ground to the text. He presents a comprehensive review of the literature on the advantages and limitations of the recall protocol as an assessment tool.

Finally, Leslie L. Schrier and Michael E. Everson describe the Iowa Critical Languages Program. With funds provided by the Ford Foundation, preservice teachers are selected and trained, both at the University of Iowa and selected universities as well as in the country of the target language. The program integrates the trained teachers into public secondary schools where critical languages are not currently being taught.

The title and contents of this volume suggest CSC's ongoing commitment to discovering and sharing the state of the art in language teaching. The topics in this publication and in the outstanding workshops, sessions, and activities of this year's conference also give witness to the visionary aspects of that commitment. The spirit of excellence with which our colleagues have presented these offerings constitute a fitting celebration for the twenty-fifth anniversary of our conference.

Acknowledgments

Along with my sincere appreciation to the coeditors of this volume, Mary Carr of Lawrence North High School (Indianapolis) and Martha Nyikos of Indiana University, goes my thanks to the readers of the many manuscripts submitted for consideration this year. With very careful planning and a number of extended editing sessions, we were able, exceptionally, to meet the publisher's deadline for distributing the books at the conference site in Des Moines. The readers were Jayne Abrate, University of Missouri at Rolla; Thomas Alsop, Ben Davis High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Jack Denny, Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois; Barbara Gonzales Pino, University of Texas, San Antonio; Lynn Haire, Ferndale Public Schools, Plymouth, Minnesota; Audrey Heining-Boynton, University of North Carolina; Dave McAlpine, University of Arkansas; Toni Theisen, Loveland High School, Loveland, Colorado; Barbara Underwood, Mt. Pleasant Township Community Schools, Yorktown, Indiana; Rosalie Vermette, Indiana University–Purdue University, Indianapolis, Indiana.

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The Origin, Founding, and Growth of the Central States Conference

Frank Grittner
Editor, *Foreign Language Annals*

Those who read this are probably aware of the high quality reached by the Central States Conference in the 1980s and 1990s; the reader may not, however, be cognizant of its humble beginnings. That is why I have chosen to focus on the parentage, labor pains, and birth of CSC as an inservice education vehicle for the foreign language profession.

As one of the founders, I was asked by the Editor and Board of Directors to write a chapter summarizing how the Conference came to be. In addition to drawing upon my personal reminiscences, I have used interviews and conversations with founders of CSC. A large number of source documents were also supplied by Jody Thrush, Executive Director of CSC, from the archives of the organization. To cull through the thousands of pages of CSC minutes, agendas, program booklets, and business correspondence is a formidable task, one that clouds the mind and disorients the imagination. In fact, entire books could be written based on the information contained in the CSC archives provided by Jody Thrush, current Executive Director. So, in my role of *ad hoc* historian, I will try to touch upon some of the important facts that serve as organizing threads weaving through the 25-year history of the Conference. To give the chapter some balance, I will insert specific, personalized incidents that throw light upon the various developments of the past quarter of a century.

Many of us take our educational institutions for granted. It is as if they came down to us through the mists of time fully formed and designed for our convenience. And so it is with the Central States Conference (CSC), now in its twenty-fifth year of service to foreign language educators. Somehow, over the years, a site

for the conference was selected, dates were established, invitations were sent out, scores of presentations dealing with multiple ancient and modern languages were scheduled, and meeting rooms for sessions and exhibits were specified. Also, for those who choose to participate in CSC affairs, opportunities were provided for membership in the Conference Corporation, leadership in its activities, and an opportunity to be a presenter, a presider, or simply a registrant who takes part in the many events provided by the Conference.

It was not always so. The Conference as we know it today is of fairly recent origin. In fact, most of its founders are still living, and many are still active in the foreign language profession. I hope that the events I have chosen to highlight out of a vast array of available data will prove interesting to the reader.

Precursors of the Central States Conference

The Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South announced its "Eleventh Annual Meeting" on December 29, 1927, in Louisville, Kentucky. No record was available regarding the first meeting in 1917. It is significant, however, that a group of modern language teachers felt the necessity to organize a foreign language pedagogical association at the onset of America's participation in World War I. It was in the ensuing seven-year period that German enrollment in American high schools dropped from over 24 percent to less than 1 percent of the total secondary school population (Parker 1961). The total loss in modern language enrollments in the post–World War I period amounted to almost 8 percent. The decline continued through the Second World War period into the 1950s. Thus, while 36 percent of all high school students were studying a foreign language in 1915, the figure had dropped to 14.1 percent by 1954 (Parker 1961). It was in this inhospitable social climate that the Association of Modern Language Teachers flourished for more than a half century.

In the early 1950s the original association changed its name to the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association (CSMLTA). The use of the word "Modern" was no accident. Latin and Greek teachers chose not to be included because they had their own separate organizations. This separatism was partly due to the fact that from the mid-1800s to the late 1920s Latin students outnumbered all modern language students combined. Also, those who determined the school curriculum had judged Latin to be educationally superior as a vehicle for mental discipline, the generally accepted goal of secondary education in the early part of the century (Grittner 1977: 26). English and modern foreign languages were considered to be utilitarian subjects lacking in rigor when compared to classical languages (Grittner 1977: 26). Over the years, modern languages gradually gained ground on Latin. It was not until after World War II, however, that a modern language (Spanish) showed higher enrollments nationally than did Latin (Parker 1961). As a result, the Central States programs, from the beginning to the Association's final meeting in 1968, showed only modern language topics in its speeches and presentations at the annual meeting (Klein 1992).

For example, the 1927 meeting lasted one day with two general-session speakers in the morning and French, German, and Spanish sectional meetings in the afternoon. One of the general-session speakers was Algernon Coleman, who

had authored the extensive "Modern Language Study" (also referred to as "The Coleman Report"). This report became infamous among foreign language educators for its advocacy of reading as the single goal of modern language programs and, by implication, the establishment of the two-year program as the model foreign language sequence in high school. (Earlier reports had recommended a four-year minimum.) Distinguished national figures of the time also were presenters at the 1927 language sectionals on topics such as "Providing for Individual Differences through Collateral Readings" (Laura Johnson), "Presenting Grammar Inductively" (Peter Hagboldt), and "Studies in Spanish Vocabulary" (M. A. Buchanan).

Travel expenses to attend the association's meetings remained reasonable through the twenties and thirties. Typically, the cost of a single hotel room with bath was $3.00; a double with bath was $5.00. In the early years of the Association many members arrived by train with a reduced rate available for those who obtained and validated a "convention certificate." By 1935 this option was discontinued due to lack of interest. Instead, members were encouraged to come by car. As the 1935 program at the Chicago Drake Hotel stated: "Autoists will be glad to know that the doorman at THE DRAKE will arrange to have their car stored for 75 cents a night, including pick up and delivery." By 1935 the Association had expanded to a two-day format, making it possible to offer banquet meetings. For these events the Drake Hotel provided dinner for $1.85 on Friday evening; the Saturday luncheon cost $1.00 (CSC Archives 1969–92).

Attendance data from the early years of the Association appear to be unavailable. The 1935 program does mention, however, that "Thirty-five hundred announcement-programs have been mailed this year. Our file of names and addresses has been enlarged until it begins to be representative of the modern language teachers in the Association's territory." The names were obtained through the cooperation of modern language teachers associations in the participating states. The following thirteen states were listed in the program as participants in 1939: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wisconsin (Klein 1992).

Problems with the Membership Organization

Many people found the process of joining the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association (CSMLTA) to be somewhat confusing. Eighty percent of a teacher's dues went for a subscription to *Modern Language Journal* delivered through another organization called the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations whose main function was (and is) to publish the *Journal*. The remaining 20 percent of dues went to support both the Central States Association and the state's modern language teachers association. This cumbersome method of dues collection and use of funds had a negative impact both on membership and finances. For the amounts received and services provided were, indeed, minimal. The 1959 program included an attempt to clarify the situation by printing the following announcement:

> Are you a subscriber to the *Modern Language Journal*?
> You may have sent $4 directly to MLJ, thinking that such payment fulfilled all

> your membership obligations. Another dollar to the treasurer will put you in good standing. FULL MEMBERSHIP COSTS THE FULL $5.
>
> Who is a member of CSMLTA?
>
> Everyone who has paid his annual dues of $5, of which $4 pays for a year's subscription to the *Modern Language Journal*, and the rest of which supports both state and regional annual meetings.

In effect, there was only one dollar of dues left over to support state and regional efforts on behalf of modern foreign language teachers. Some states added 50 cents for the state treasury, which further confused the dues collection process. The Association helped its finances in 1939 by charging a conference fee (25 cents) and by adding paid book exhibits. Nevertheless, the unwieldy dues structure coupled with other problems eventually led to the demise of the Association.

Another persistent problem of the CSMLTA was the lack of consistency and quality control regarding the presentations at the annual meetings. The French, German, and Spanish sectionals were especially unpredictable. Some years a given language program would consist of a mix of pedagogical and literary sessions; in other years the topics would all be rather esoteric literary presentations in which a professor would read a paper relating to his or her area of specialization. High school German teachers who were struggling to motivate adolescent learners and to teach the basics in a two-year span of time might be ill inclined to attend a program to learn about "Antithesis in the World of Appearance: Contrasting Schools in the Prose Works of Hermann Hesse." Similarly, Spanish teachers would be unlikely to show up in droves to listen to a paper on "The Jungle and Love in Rivera's and Hudson's Novels of the Amazon." And high school French teachers might have problems relating to a paper on "The Animal Imagery in Madame Bovary." Yet during the 1960s topics of this kind tended to dominate the CSMLTA language sectionals. Clearly, the clientele for such papers consisted almost exclusively of college and university professors of literature. Significantly, this put the Central States Association directly in competition for participants with the Midwest Modern Language Association, which was totally oriented toward the reading of literary and linguistic research papers at its annual meeting. The concept of an organization focused exclusively on methods, materials, and pedagogy never was accepted by the leaders of CSMLTA.

Despite the problems, conditions were potentially favorable for the Central States Association during the 1960s. The federal government through the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) and other programs was pouring tens of millions of dollars into support for and promotion of modern foreign language studies. Through various "Titles," NDEA financed summer- and year-long institutes for modern language teacher retraining. It also set up and funded language research projects, materials and equipment acquisition programs, innovative experimental programs relating to technology and FLES, and state foreign language supervisory positions in forty of the fifty states. In response to these and other efforts, enrollments in school and university modern language programs began to grow sharply, a trend that continued until the 1970s (Draper 1991). This produced a climate in which teachers, administrators, and curriculum supervisors were receptive to teacher inservice efforts of all kinds. Several state foreign language organizations in the Midwest began drawing 500 to 1,000 participants at meetings in which speakers

and presenters addressed their remarks to these new developments. By contrast, the 1967 Central States Association meeting in Cincinnati had only about 300 people in attendance (Allen 1968a). And the final meeting of the Association at the LaSalle Hotel in Chicago drew fewer than 150 (Gradisnik 1992).

Why had the Association failed at a time when the profession was prospering? Charles Kirk, the last Association President, explained his version of the cause using a medical analogy:

> The doctors, (i.e., Executive Council members) though skilled . . . simply could not conquer the terrible malady with which the patient was afflicted—a general apathetic membership, and an organizational structure which repeatedly failed to meet the needs of its constituency or failed to respond rapidly and effectively to the changing tenor of the profession. The result is what we see here today—the passing of a once-powerful individual membership organization. (Kirk 1969)

He also alluded to the negative effects of "the internal struggles within CSMLTA [that] have produced calamitous feelings of bitterness. Charges and counter-charges have been hurled about wildly, and personal animosities have in some instances produced truly tragic alterations in certain interpersonal relationships." An examination of CSMLTA minutes and correspondence indicates that Kirk was understating the situation. The animosity led to lawsuits and legal fees, some of which were charged to the Association by its president, Rosario Ziegler. This, along with poor attendance at the annual meetings, led to serious financial deficits following the 1968 meeting. To make matters worse, the leaders of CSMLTA seemed unable to depart from the depression-era dues structure, which left the organization with one dollar from each member after deducting for the subscription to the *Modern Language Journal (MLJ)*. Nor did they see fit to return to the earlier practice of charging a registration fee for the annual meeting.

Anthony Gradisnik, the Advertising Manager from 1964 to 1968, had done a remarkable job of increasing revenues from exhibits at the conference hotels and from advertisements in the annual program. But these receipts were needed to cover the cost of printing and mailing the annual meeting program. There was little left to pay for general session speakers or the many other expenses of operating a seventeen-state organization (Allen 1968a). Worst of all, no one had taken the responsibility of maintaining the mailing list. Thus, in 1968 over 10,000 program booklets were sent to eleven state educational agencies of the region in the hope that they would be mailed on to language teachers and professors in the respective states (Allen 1968c) The fact that fewer than 150 people showed up at the Chicago meeting indicates that few of the program booklets reached their intended destinations. Thus in the spring of 1968 CSMLTA was organizationally and financially bankrupt. As the final minutes of the Association stated:

> The treasurer, Magoon, reported on the present financial deficit of the Association amounting to $1380.81 including legal fees incurred by Mrs. Ziegler for $794.70, approximately $500.00 in fees and expenses in connection with the meeting in Chicago last May and some operating expenses for the year since the Chicago meeting. Receipts to date amount to $229.76. (Payne 1969)

When the Executive Council met during the disastrous 1968 Chicago convention, only a few of its members still favored retaining the membership organization. The majority voted for converting the Association to the conference format based on the highly successful Northeast Conference. As council member Arendt pointed out, "the Northeast Conference had become so large that it has desperately been seeking ways to drain off membership; 3600 people attended the conference this spring (1968). The Northeast Conference has expressed willingness to lend money for a Central States Conference and help organize it" (Allen 1968b). The Executive Council voted at its 1968 meeting to accept this financial aid and to authorize a committee "to implement its plan for reorganization of CSMLTA into a conference in place of the present membership organization" (Allen 1968b). This ad hoc committee was also charged with planning the 1969 annual meeting to be held in Milwaukee on the same dates that the Northeast Conference would meet. (April 10–12, 1969, were the days subsequently chosen.) Executive Council members who still resisted the idea of a conference insisted that the Association's membership be polled to determine whether the change to a conference should be made. A motion to do so was accepted (Allen 1968b). A report on the results would be made at the next annual meeting of the Association.

From Association to Conference: The Transition

As it turned out, the next meeting of the Association's officers was the final function of CSMLTA. By April 10, 1969, the organization was already calling itself "The Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages." The ad hoc committee that had been authorized to reorganize the Association into a conference had moved rapidly to accomplish that purpose. Articles of Incorporation and a complete set of by-laws had been drafted in preparation for approval at the April 1969 meeting. A "Founders Group" of twelve consisted of former Association officers plus the new Conference advocates. This group became the first Board of Directors for the Conference. Its members—with term of offices specified—were

Jermaine D. Arendt, Consultant in Foreign Languages, Minneapolis Public Schools (until 1973).

Jacqueline Elliott, Department of Romance Languages, University of Tennessee (until 1971).

Percy Fearing, Consultant in Modern Foreign Languages, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota (until 1970).

Anthony Gradisnik, Milwaukee Public Schools (until 1971).

Frank Grittner, Wisconsin Supervisor of Modern Foreign Languages (until 1972).

Gilbert Kettelkamp, Educational Placement Office, University of Illinois (until 1972).

Charles Kirk, Department of Romance Languages, Kent State University (until 1970).

Barbara Ort, Michigan Supervisor of Foreign Languages (until 1973).

J. Henry Owens, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan (until 1971).

J. Thomas Shaw, Slavic Language Department, University of Wisconsin, Madison (until 1970).

Lorraine Strasheim, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana (until 1970).

Albert Turner, Spanish Department, Evanston Township High School (until 1972). (Roeming 1969)

The term of service for each of the original directors was determined by lot at the Board of Directors Meeting on April 12, 1969. As reported by Gradisnik, this was part of the restructuring plan to assure "That the officers and board members would be constantly changing so that no cliques or turf- building would occur. . . . Also, with continuous new life on the Board constantly newer, fresher, and more creative ideas could be experienced by the Conference attendees as more individuals get the opportunity to assume leadership roles" (Gradisnik 1992). Not only did the founders arrange for their own phase-out, but also they designed the by-laws to ensure that gradual, systematic change in leadership would continue for the Conference.

The new Board also attacked the financial problems inherited from the latter years of the CSMLTA. Donald Walsh, Secretary-Treasurer of the Northeast Conference, accepted the invitation to meet with the new leadership of Central States to suggest ways of adopting and adapting the format of the Northeast Conference to the needs of the Midwest. He also agreed to be a general session speaker at the first meeting of the Central States Conference in April 1969. In addition, Walsh committed $4000 of Northeast Conference funds as an interest-free loan to Central States for start-up costs. In order to generate new income, individuals, schools, and universities were solicited to become members of the Advisory Council. By the end of 1969, monies were received from 60 sponsors ($25 each) and 7 patrons ($50 each) for a total of $1850. As stated in the by-laws, the Advisory Council along with the Board of Directors were the only members of the corporation. Registrants were nonmembers of the corporation who—according to the by-laws—"may, upon the payment of the current registration fee as set by the Board of Directors, become a registrant for the current year" (Roeming 1969: 462). This provision enabled the Board of Directors to respond to fiscal needs on a year-to-year basis. Also, Advisory Council membership fees could be changed yearly by either the Advisory Council or the Board of Directors, thereby allowing the organization to respond yearly to increased costs of operation. The first-year's conference registration fee was $4.00 (nonrefundable); $5.00 on-site. The 1969 Conference in Milwaukee drew 560 registrants, which meant an additional $2200 in revenues. Fees from advertisements in the program booklet, plus exhibit receipts, paid for much of the cost of printing and mailing the conference invitations. Within a year of its "Declaration of Reorganization" at the Chicago meeting in May 1968, the Conference was approaching fiscal solvency. And, with the huge surge in attendance, prospects for increased advertising and exhibit revenues were excellent. In fact, the Board of Directors was so pleased by these positive developments that they voted a $600 honorarium to Anthony Gradisnik, Secretary-Treasurer, "for the business conducted for the 1969 meeting" (Grittner 1969).

This payment to Tony and Shirley Gradisnik was, indeed, modest in view of the hundreds of hours they had devoted to managing the Conference and solving the mailing-list problem, which was the reason that 560 people appeared at the 1969 meeting. And the reason the invitation booklets reached their destinations was that the Gradisniks had obtained addresses from foreign language supervisors, college and university language departments, state foreign language associations, and other agencies in all seventeen states belonging to the Conference territory. Since I was in Wisconsin, I hand-delivered my lists of high school and university foreign language teachers to the Gradisnik's home in Milwaukee. And there I found, in their basement office, that Shirley Gradisnik had culled through thousands of pages of miscellaneous documents from the seventeen states to derive a 9,000-person bulk mailing list. She then typed this list onto address-label plates, which were subsequently hand-cranked through a machine and transferred onto the program booklets. In subsequent years this bulk mailing list expanded to 12,000 addresses on "addressograph" plates. These were all typed by hand and run off manually, and the programs were delivered personally to the Milwaukee post office by Shirley Gradisnik (Gradisnik 1992). In 1970, for example, approximately 600 first-class labels were sent out plus the permit labels itemized below:

Arkansas	203	Missouri	645
Colorado	198	Nebraska	183
Indiana	523	North Dakota	106
Illinois	871	Ohio	1,245
Iowa	572	Oklahoma	314
Kansas	332	South Dakota	97
Kentucky	442	Tennessee	310
Michigan	851	Wisconsin	948
Minnesota	577	Total	8,417
		Other	600
			9,017

This instant success of the conference format made the balloting of Association members a moot point. They had been asked via a mailed ballot if CSMLTA should be reorganized into a conference. The results as reported to the Executive Council of the Association at its final meeting on April 10, 1969, in Milwaukee were: yes—277 ballots; no—62 ballots; disqualified—6 ballots (Payne 1969). The President of the Council, Charles Kirk, accepted the report and stated that "there is nothing we are obliged to do except to dissolve the CSMLTA and turn over its assets and deficits to the officers of the CENTRAL STATES CONFERENCE ON TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, INCORPORATED." And he quoted the following from the proposed by-laws of the new Conference:

> 1. The name of the Corporation is The Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Incorporated, formerly the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association and earlier still the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central, West and South. (Payne 1969)

The Central States Conference held its first meeting on April 10–12, 1969, the Board of Directors was designated, the Articles of Incorporation and by-laws were

printed in the November issue of the *Modern Language Journal*, and money was collected in the name of the new organization. All that remained was to make it legal. This was accomplished with the filing of the Articles of Incorporation under the General Not for Profit Corporation Act, which were signed by Paul Powell, Secretary of State, Springfield, Illinois "on the second day of December A.D. 1969 as provided by the GENERAL NOT FOR PROFIT ACT of Illinois . . ." (CSC Archives 1969–92). Signatories on behalf of the Conference were Board Members Barbara Ort, Anthony Gradisnik, and Jermaine Arendt. The names and addresses of all twelve board members were also listed in the document along with "The purpose or purposes for which the corporation is organized." This included statements that the Conference exists:

> For the advancement of the study and teaching of ancient and modern foreign languages in schools, colleges and elsewhere within the United States and its territories. This corporation is organized for educational purposes within the meaning of the Internal Revenue Code of the United States and any amendments thereto, and no part of the net earnings of the corporation shall inure to the benefit of any member or individual. No substantial part of its activities shall be devoted to carrying on propaganda or attempting to influence legislation, and the corporation will not participate in any political campaign on behalf of any candidate for public office. (CSC Archives 1969–92)

Significantly, the purposes of the Conference now included the advancement of the study and teaching of ancient as well as modern foreign languages. This was important not only because Latin sectionals now were to become part of all future conference programs, but also because affiliation with the recently formed American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) required the inclusion of ancient languages. Like the Central States Conference, state foreign language associations began to delete the word "modern" from their official titles as a pre-condition for being involved with ACTFL.

Question arose regarding the *Modern Language Journal (MLJ)*. As was noted earlier, a major function of CSMLTA had been to promote *MLJ* and to collect money for subscriptions to it. Some people, in fact, used that relationship as an argument for continuing CSMLTA as a membership organization. The counterargument—that *MLJ* was a strong and respected journal that could survive on its own—proved subsequently to be accurate. In any case, the CSC by-laws provided for membership in the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (NFMLTA), which published *MLJ*. This affiliation provided Conference officers with a means of monitoring the progress of *MLJ*. It was agreed that the mailing of the conference invitations each year would include a gratis advertisement directed at potential subscribers. This, and other efforts around the country, appear to have maintained the readership for *MLJ*.

Publication of the Conference Proceedings

The *MLJ* was also involved indirectly in a problem that the new Conference failed to solve during its first few years of existence. I refer here to the inability of

the officers to find a way to publish the proceedings of the conference and make them available to the membership. The new Board of Directors had agreed on *what* should be published by following the Northeast Conference model as explained by Donald Walsh:

> Our conference has been persistently pedagogical. Language learning has been our focus. Culture and literature have been considered only as part of the total language learning process. We do not invite or accept scholarly papers in literature. Teachers who want to read or hear such papers do not come to the NORTHEAST CONFERENCE to do so. (Walsh 1969)

Similarly, the Central States Conference officers wanted the pedagogical presentations to be published. But for various reasons, the Central States Board of Directors did not accept the Northeast Conference use of working committees who "prepare reports that are mailed to preregistrants in advance of the meeting, reports that are used as the subject of the discussions at the conference. Also, the reports are widely sold to libraries and to people who cannot, for one reason or another, attend a given conference" (Walsh 1969). Part of the reason for not adopting the Northeast Conference approach was a general aversion to pre-prepared materials. That is, Central States leaders did not want a conference in which all presenters read papers, even pedagogical ones. Instead, they wanted a majority of the presentations to be spontaneous and to elicit lively responses from participants (Strasheim 1971). A partial and temporary solution to the problem was made with the cooperation of *MLJ* Editor Robert Roeming and his successor, Charles King. Roeming agreed to publish the general session papers from the 1969 Conference while King did the same for the 1971 Conference. In 1970 it was not possible to get all the papers together; instead, the proceedings were summarized briefly in *MLJ* and a listing of presenters and their topics was included (Grittner & Arendt 1970). At its April 4, 1970, meeting in St. Louis, the Central States Board of Directors had recommended "publication in *MLJ* of the major papers of each CENTRAL STATES CONFERENCE." This was to be done in advance of each annual meeting "so that each conference registrant may receive a complimentary personal copy" (Strasheim 1970). Central States was to pay for the 1,000 copy over-run; these copies were to be delivered by January 15 preceding each conference.

Attempts to implement this approach did not succeed. Being a refereed journal, *MLJ* could not guarantee that each paper would meet its approval standards nor that the review process could be scheduled to meet Conference deadlines. An alternative procedure was to mimeograph as many of the presentations as possible and to hand them out at the beginning of each session. In some cases this was less than desirable. I recall one large session in the early 1970s in which the presenter was reading a paper and the two-hundred-plus audience was silently reading along, each with a mimeographed copy that was stapled in the upper left corner. So, when the speaker reached the bottom of the page, every member of the audience flipped to the next page of his or her copy, creating a sound that resembled the noise of a major conflagration.

When I was appointed editor for the 1973 and 1974 conferences, I immediately proposed that selected conference presentations be printed by a commercial publisher. The resulting "proceedings book" would then be distributed either during or after each annual conference meeting (Strasheim 1971). After

negotiations with a number of publishers, National Textbook Company (NTC) made an offer to print the introductory book at no cost to the Conference and, in fact, to remit 10 percent of the gross sales to CSC. Further, NTC sold the first book at the reduced price of $4.50 per copy, about half of the current market price. CSC agreed to promote the book with a two-page centerfold advertisement in the 1974 conference booklet (which went to over 12,000 foreign language teachers).

The offer was quickly accepted by the CSC Board of Directors and the result was a nine-chapter book of selected papers from the 1973 Central States Conference. The book, entitled *Student Motivation and the Foreign Language Teacher*, had sold 416 copies by mid April 1974 (Mullen 1974). It subsequently went through multiple printings and was sold to thousands of teachers around the country. The Board of Directors was pleased with this approach to publishing the Conference Proceedings. So much so, in fact, that they voted an increase in registration fees to ensure that all future conference registrants received a copy as part of the registration packet. Thus, another major problem had been solved. This development was summarized in the introduction to the second proceedings book, *Careers, Communication and Culture*, as follows:

> In the spring of 1974 the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages returned to Milwaukee, thereby beginning the second "cycle" of meetings for the conference which first convened in that city in 1969. Since that time the conference has met in Saint Louis (1970), Detroit (1971), Chicago (1972), and Saint Paul (1973). The basic purpose of the conference, as conceived by the Board of Directors over the years, has been to make available to foreign language educators throughout the Central States area an annual meeting consisting of general sessions, audiovisual presentations, workshops, small-group discussions, and displays—all relating to current issues in foreign language learning. From the outset, the emphasis has been upon professional social interaction, that is, upon facilitating face-to-face communication between teachers of various languages at all instructional levels. This remains the primary purpose of the conference. However, through most of the brief history of the Conference, the Board of Directors had not found a satisfactory way of publishing the proceedings. Part of the problem was due to the board's desire not to redirect the focus of the conference by implying that presenters should "deliver papers" rather than aim at direct communication with participants. Then too, there was the fear that future presenters would hesitate to make use of audiovisuals, panel discussions, group process and other potentially effective approaches to communication if they knew in advance that a "paper" was requested. Thus, in 1973, a compromise approach was implemented under which presenters were invited to submit a written version of their remarks if, in their judgment, such a version could be properly developed. The implementation of this procedure resulted in the publication of the first Central States Report entitled *Student Motivation and the Foreign Language Teacher: A Guide for Building the Modern Curriculum* (Grittner 1973). The same procedure was followed in obtaining chapters for this second volume of selected Central States papers. As before, a number of presenters declined to submit papers on grounds that their part of the program (e.g., audiovisual presentation or panel discussion) could not readily be converted to a written format. (Grittner 1974)

The approach described above has apparently accomplished its purpose. With the publication of the 1993 volume we now have an unbroken series of twenty-one

proceedings books, all still available from National Textbook Company. (Note: Most of the volume titles and editor's names are listed on the last page of this volume.)

Conference Governance

The original Conference by-laws called for only three officers: the Chair, who planned the annual conference and also presided over the Board of Directors; the Recording Secretary, who kept a record of the proceedings of the Board of Directors; and the Secretary-Treasurer, who actually functioned as the Chief Executive Officer and Treasurer combined. The latter position included a salary as determined by the Board of Directors. Over the years these positions were modified and expanded. The Conference Chair was split to provide a Chair of the Board and a Vice Chair. The Program Chair of the conference became a separate office. A Local Chair was also added to coordinate activities in the host city. A CSC *Report* Editor and—much later—a newsletter editor were added.

The title of the Secretary-Treasurer was changed to "Executive-Secretary" in 1972, a designation that held until 1989, when the term "Executive Director" was introduced. Space does not permit a listing of the hundreds of people who served as officers and board members over the years, not to mention the thousands who have been speakers, council members, presiders, and local arrangement workers. A more manageable approach is to examine the functions of the most influential CSC Officers—the Executive Secretaries—and commend the progress of the Conference under these six people over the past 25 years. The workload of this modestly salaried and allegedly part-time position was enormous from the outset. A position description from 1982 notes the following functions (among others):

> The Executive Secretary maintains permanent records of the Corporation and an office for the same. His/her duties are as assigned by the Board of Directors.
>
> Position responsibilities include:
>
> 1. Appointed by the Board of Directors for a two-year term.
> 2. Shall be the custodian of and receive and disburse money, bonds, notes, and other securities and properties of the Corporation.
> 3. Gives a bond when required by the Board for the official business of the Corporation.
> 4. Signs official fiscal papers and documents of the Corporation.
> 5. Receives such compensation and dispenses such office accounts as are approved by the Board of Directors.
> 6. Maintains close communication and cooperation with the Chairman of the Board, Program Chairman, Board of Directors and the Local Chairman as plans develop for the Conference.
> 7. Makes arrangements for publishing the Program Booklet. This includes contracting with a printer, obtaining advertisements, laying out the booklet, and mailing the booklets.
> 8. Contacts Foreign Language Chairmen of schools and colleges and invites them to become members of the Advisory Council.
> 9. Contacts prospective exhibitors and makes all needed arrangements for Conference exhibiting.

10. Publicizes the Conference with editors of state and national FL publications and uses other ways and means to publicize the Conference.
11. Negotiates with hotels for terms most beneficial to the Conference.
12. Maintains booklets which contain guidelines for Officers of the Conference with the help and advice of the Chairman of the Board. Gives copies to newly-elected/appointed officers. (CSC Archives 1969–92)

The very first Executive Secretary—Anthony Gradisnik—not only had most of the above-listed duties to perform, but also had to cope with the phasing out of an indebted, strife-ridden association in which he had served for five years as advertising manager. The first five meetings of the conference under Tony's management are summarized below including location and attendance:

1969	Milwaukee	560 registrants
1970	St. Louis	520 registrants
1971	Detroit	696 registrants
1972	Chicago	610 registrants
1973	St. Paul	760 registrants

(CSC Archives 1969–92)

During the five years of his service to CSC, all debts were paid, including the repayment of the loan from the Northeast Conference. Advisory Council membership had increased to over 100 paid members and advertising and exhibit revenues were now showing a profit. At his last meeting as Executive Secretary, the 1973 Conference Chair, Lorraine Strasheim, made the following statement:

> Tony Gradisnik is singlehandedly responsible for the success of each of the Central States Conferences. Board Members wavered in their enthusiasm and in the belief in the Conference from time to time, but Tony never did. He worked harder in making the Conference "work" than all the Board Members put together. He has been responsible for all of the financial dealings of the Conference. It is due to his untiring efforts that the Conference this year is finally debt free. He leaves the Conference as the Conference continues to grow in attendance and as the Conference is financially stable. No one has served Central States half so well. (Mullen 1973)

What Tony had set in motion was continued, improved, and expanded by a series of highly effective Executive Secretaries under the direction of a gradually changing Board of Directors. The complete list of Executive Secretaries along with the conference years for which they were responsible is as follows:

Anthony Gradisnik—1969–73
Bill Clapper—1974–77
Maurice Conner—1978–79
Ruben Peterson—1980–82
Gerard Ervin—1983–88
Jody Thrush—1989 to the present

A few indicators of their success are (1) Fiscally, instead of the severe indebtedness of its first year, the Conference shows a yearly balance well in excess of $100,000; (2) Numbers of registrants are almost double the best of the early

years, with attendance ranging between 1295 and 1566 over the five-year period 1987–91; (3) Membership as of February 1992 was over 270 paid-up Patrons, Sponsors, and Subscribers who constitute the Advisory Council; (4) Programmatically, the Conference is reaching and involving a wide range of foreign language educators by soliciting presentation proposals throughout its service area and beyond in contrast to the old system, which had a small committee selecting conference speakers; (5) Geographically the Conference has extended its range beyond the original cycle (Milwaukee, St. Louis, Detroit, Chicago, and Minneapolis) to include Columbus, Denver, Des Moines, Indianapolis, Kansas City, Louisville, Nashville, and Omaha as alternate meeting sites; and (6) Services provided have expanded to include a newsletter, grant programs for teachers, social events at the conference, and an awards program to recognize people in and out of the foreign language teaching profession for their positive contributions to foreign language education. In 1985, Jerry Ervin changed the Conference logo slightly to add the words: "The Friendly Conference." Had we sought such an addition in the early years, the term might have been, "The Combative Conference!" For not only were people fighting over whether the Conference needed to exist, many of the general session speakers were chosen for the controversial nature of their topics. For example, one of the speakers at the first conference advocated the solving of the articulation problem by having the colleges tell the high schools what to do. One should, he asserted, respect high school teachers for operating "at a lower plane of endeavor." But the college professor who is obviously "functioning at a higher plateau . . . has an obligation to lead." Therefore, he said, "Let us get 'involved,' if you please! Professors by leading energetically (yet tactfully); high school colleagues by following cheerfully and without pique" (Hartwig 1969). And where were the high school teachers "unpiquefully" to be led? Our college professor speaker was quite clear about that, too: "What the colleges expect of the high schools then is, first, to build up an acceptable 'foundation program' patterned after the best or 'model' two-year college curriculum" (Hartwig 1969).

In the early years, a reaction session was provided for each of the general sessions. Sara Whitten was the Chair and Recorder for the session on "what the colleges expect." And she noted that "Someone reacted to the title of the original presentation by saying that it was high time that the high schools tell the colleges what they expected of them. This statement was greeted by loud applause" (Whitten 1969).

Over the years we may have grown too friendly and prosperous for such premeditated acrimony. The reaction sessions had tended to become a "challenge-the-speaker" event which does not easily fit into the American tradition: "If you can't say something nice, don't say anything at all." The old format has been replaced by a rich profusion of workshops, how-to sessions, general session speakers, awards ceremonies, and much more. This is progress. Along with the other founders who are still around, I feel a sense of satisfaction at just how much progress has taken place in 25 years. The original ideas of continuity and change seem to be working still. The Advisory Council continues to function in its role of electing an ever-changing Board of Directors. And each new Board continues to make its unique contributions to meeting the current needs of foreign language educators in the Central States area.

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2
What We Can Learn from Those Who Avoid Us:
Why Some Students Do Not Study Foreign Language

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"The United States can be characterized as the home of the brave and the land of the monolingual" (Rose Lee Hayden in Simon 1980). In this great melting pot called the United States, the many cultures from which we came have been repressed. We Americans tout our nation as the world's strongest and our language as the only one worth knowing. We expect to be revered through the rest of the world for our democratic ideals, our economic prowess, and our communication media.

Historically, the counterbalance to this attitude has been the inclusion of foreign language classes in our nation's schools. The 1979 President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies confirmed what foreign language teachers already knew, that "America's competence in foreign languages is scandalous and it is becoming worse" (President's Commission 1979: 1). The call to action seemed compelling when the National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1983 recommended in addition to the "five new basics" that college-bound students take two years of foreign language in high school in addition to those taken earlier.

But limiting the availability of foreign language instruction to the college-bound fosters the attitude of elitism and reinforces the notion that foreign language is only for the brighter students. In contrast, Crawford-Lange (1985) proposed "Rather than market the subject as difficult, though, foreign language teachers need to assume the challenge of designing courses for all students and to market their discipline as one that is available to all" (p. 15).

In recent years, there has grown a new awareness of the global nature of our society and the need for multicultural understanding. Some educators see the

foreign language classroom as the most expedient delivery system to improve U.S. students' global awareness. Lippmann (1974) observed

> There is no better way of making you conscious of things outside your own culture than to learn a foreign language [but] we must realize that our need is not so much for specialists as for people who can use foreign language skills in a limited way in their everyday working situations. . . . Therefore we must forget our "all or nothing" attitude and encourage as many people as possible to study one or more languages for any period of time.

The young people who are the potential learners of foreign languages in U.S. schools have not been asked their opinions on the topic. Given the fact that high school students are egocentric and determined to assert their independence, they are not likely to enroll in foreign language classes because some government commission told them they should do so. Do they believe that foreign language is relevant in their lives and manageable in their school careers? How did we come to this dilemma?

The "Melting Pot" Brought Us Here

The waves of immigrants who arrived in the United States in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries brought with them dozens of languages, dialects, and cultural differences. The newcomers promptly set about removing those differences from their pasts and strove to become Americans.

> I consider it the paramount duty of public schools, apart from the educational knowledge to be instilled into our pupils, to form American citizens of them . . . obliterating from the very earliest moment all the distinguishing foreign characteristics and traits, which the beginners may bring with them, as obstructive, warring and irritating elements. (Commissioner of the Common Schools of New York City, 1896; in Simon 1980: 11)

About the repression of ethnic differences, Roskens (1979) had this to say:

> This is one of the most notable instances of assimilation and acculturation in the history of the world, and one for which the American educational system deserves enormous credit. Within two or three generations, the immigrants were, for the most part, consolidated as one people. They spoke a common tongue, for to be American was to speak English.

Many grandparents "protected" their young people from the mother tongue and used the native language as a means of private communication among the old folks.

Monolingualism may be imbedded in the American psyche, but ethnocentrism has been demonstrated by others:

> It is impossible to understand why millions of people . . . must learn two or three foreign languages, only a fraction of which they can make use of later, and hence most of them forget entirely . . . why they must be tormented for nothing and made to sacrifice valuable time. (Adolf Hitler, *Mein Kampf*, 1923; in Simon 1980: 11)

The United States' dominance after both World Wars served to reinforce the superior attitude of Americans, but those wars also proved that the United States is not a monolithic giant isolated from the rest of the world. The national defense was the highest priority until 1957, when Sputnik restored the threat of losing supremacy. The reaction among the scientific communities was remarkable, but foreign language specialists also reacted:

> In short, our foreign language program will amount to something only if foreign language instruction is begun in the grades, if the high schools require six years of a first and three of a second for the academic diploma, and if the colleges require six years of one language and three of a second for admission. If that can be done, we will have something that can face up to the challenge of Soviet education. (Heubener 1961)

Language Education Has Evolved

Judith Liskin-Gasparro, writing for the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) in 1983, traced the historical development of second language education back to the ancient Sumerians of about 3000 B.C. From then until the eighteenth century, learning a foreign language meant spending long periods of time conversing with a native-speaking tutor, a kind of "direct method" that seems progressive by today's standards. She said

> Evidence indicates that ideas in force about foreign language teaching in the Renaissance period and up to the eighteenth century would seem surprisingly modern to today's educators concerned about the teaching of language proficiency. (Liskin- Gasparro 1983: 12)

Another interesting observation in her chronology was that the launching of Sputnik in 1957 made Americans aware overnight of the inadequacy of their education system.

The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) pumped federal funds into areas of education related to the national interest, and foreign languages were among the beneficiaries of the windfall. The Army Language School, created to present "crash" courses for World War II personnel, had adopted an "audiolingual" method of learning that worked well for them. Taking the cue, many schools used NDEA money to equip language laboratories, and for the first time in centuries, conversation skills again took precedence over reading and translation. By 1962, 6000 schools had installed the laboratory equipment. Enrollments in foreign language courses increased from 16.5 percent to 27.7 percent of all high school students nationwide from 1958 to 1968. Then federal money was redirected to other needs, and the audiolingual approach was discredited as being no more effective than traditional methods.

> Moreover, the cultural climate of the late sixties and early seventies was not congenial to foreign language studies. Some radical educators denounced the discipline as elitist. Secondary school and college officials, anxious to placate

> rebellious students, dispensed with requirements for many difficult courses, including foreign languages. (Liskin-Gasparro 1983: 14)

Garcia (1985) observed that children who use other languages in U.S. schools are sent to special remedial classes. Their English-speaking classmates know that these special classes are called "bilingual" and the classes are regarded as a penalty for not speaking English perfectly. Why would any U.S. student want to become "bilingual"?

In 1982, Herron presented an exhaustive discussion of the "myth" that foreign language is "elitist," only for the talented, college-bound students. She traced the origins of that elitist attitude to nineteenth-century curriculum designers who held that the primary justification for education was the development of mental power. They believed that mental discipline was best achieved through exercise, which was best provided by the study of the "basics," Greek, Latin, and mathematics. Gradually, mental disciplinarians allowed the inclusion of "modern" subjects as practical additions: modern languages, science, history, and English. But the modern languages were taught in the same format as the classics, the grammar-translation method.

As secondary schools attracted more students—from 6.7 percent of 14–17-year-olds in 1890 to 33 percent of the same group in 1920, and 51 percent in 1930 (Kliebard 1981)—there arose great debate over the focus of their education. Secondary school administrators were confused by the great disparity in college entrance requirements and whether they should prepare students for "life" or for further education.

Various national committees tackled the issues from 1892 to 1900 and eventually arrived at an expanded curriculum that provided a standard for high schools. The National Education Association's Committee of Ten (NEA 1893) was firm in the position that there should be no "tracking" of students according to their future plans or individual capacities. The committee emphasized that education for "life" (becoming a good critical thinker) was education for college. An NEA Committee of Twelve (1896) was appointed to decide whether modern languages served as well as Greek and Latin to promote mental discipline.

The mental-discipline theorists were opposed by pragmatists who felt it too costly to educate all children liberally. The Cardinal Principles report of 1918 (NEA Commission 1928) signaled a period of school reorganization that emphasized preparation for specific occupations. Foreign language became relegated to a "role of electives for high-ability, high I.Q., college-bound students" (NEA Commission 1928).

Today's educational psychologists favor a kind of mental disciplinarianism, but they label it cognition, critical-thinking skills, and problem solving.

Approximately a hundred years separate the NEA's Committee of Ten and the report of the Commission on the Humanities (1980), which stated:

> All people have the capacity for high standards of expression, interpretation, and discrimination; these are not exclusive privileges of one class or culture. In acquiring skills in native and foreign languages, students learn logic, classification, and comparison. These conceptual skills are no less basic than literacy itself.

Rhodes and Oxford (1987) surveyed a large number of elementary and secondary schools to provide a national picture of offerings and enrollment in foreign language. They found that 22 percent of elementary and 87 percent of secondary schools in the United States offer foreign languages. Of all United States secondary students, about 30 percent are studying a foreign language, and of those who begin, fewer than 10 percent are still in the sequence by the fourth year (Arendt & Warriner-Burke 1990: 445).

Summarizing the past fifty years of foreign language education, Heining-Boynton (1991) stated that

> The current philosophy states that foreign language education is for all students. Along with learning how to listen, speak, read, and write the language, high school students need to learn an appreciation for the target culture. . . . A high school program succeeds by guiding students toward their personal level of proficiency, not mastery of the language; utilizing methods that are concrete, hands-on, and meaningful; organizing student-centered classes; providing a thoughtful and thorough plan of articulation; making wise choices when scheduling; hiring well-trained teachers; and making available and encouraging inservice training for the foreign language educator.

If our secondary language programs could truly accomplish all those ideals, we could attract a much larger percentage of the students. But how do the students view the prospects?

Students Voiced Their Opinions

In an attempt to learn the opinions of students who did not include foreign language classes in their high school programs, a study[1] was conducted at Westside High School in Omaha, Nebraska. Westside is the single high school in a suburban independent public school district. When the study was conducted in 1991–92, 63 percent of the 1434 students were enrolled in foreign language, more than double the national average.

Westside High School takes pride in its unique modular-variable scheduling design, exemplary counseling program, and other features for which it was hailed as one of the best school districts in the United States ("The Best Schools" 1989). Westside students expressed a high degree of satisfaction with their school in 1991 and scored at the 97th percentile nationally on the American College Test (ACT) in 1990 (Westside High School 1991: 2).

The design of the study facilitated the investigation. It brought together randomly selected students who were not currently enrolled in a foreign language class and allowed them to brainstorm and discuss with other students in the same grade their reasons for omitting foreign language from their programs. They also considered the reasons they believed other students might have for avoiding foreign language. The list of student-generated reasons was later given to another group of randomly selected nonenrolling students. The second group performed a Q-sort process[2] to determine the rank order of importance for each of the reasons. The results of the groups' work are displayed in table 2-1.

Table 2-1

Rankings of Reasons for Nonenrollment in Foreign Language

Students do not want to enroll because	Code	All Subjects	Males	Females	Rankings by 9th/10th Graders	Rankings by 11th/12th Graders
They do not want to	E	**1**	3.5	1	2	1.5
It is too hard	S	**2**	6	2	1	3.5
They would rather take other classes	E	**3**	6	3	8	1.5
They believe it will not help in a career	U	**4**	1.5	11	4	8.5
They believe it does not apply to life	U	**5.5**	3.5	13.5	5	8.5
It is difficult to obtain extra help in F.L. classes	S	**5.5**	8.5	6	3	15.5
They believe fluency is not possible in high school	U	**7.5**	6	20	6.5	15.5
They did not like a F.L. teacher in the past	E	**7.5**	12	4	11	5.5
There is too much homework	E	**9**	1.5	8.5	6.5	19
They cannot understand foreign speakers' talk	S	**10**	11	15.5	10	17.5
They do not plan to travel to any foreign country	N	**13**	10	22.5	18.5	8.5
They think the classes are boring	E	**13**	8.5	6	9	3.5
Past F.L. classes were not fun	E	**13**	15.5	11	22	5.5
There is not enough room in their schedules	U	**13**	17	8.5	18.5	8.5
They think the teachers are boring	E	**13**	13.5	13.5	15.5	11.5
It is not required	N	**16**	19.5	6	18.5	11.5
They think the teachers are not nice	E	**17**	15.5	20	22	13.5
They believe most foreigners learn English	N	**18.5**	18	20	22	17.5
They do not need the credits for graduation	N	**18.5**	21.5	15.5	13	21
They cannot get high enough English grades to qualify	S	**21**	21.5	17.5	13	22.5
They do not plan to talk with any foreigners	U	**21**	24	24.5	13	22.5

Table 2-1 *(continued)*

Rankings of Reasons for Nonenrollment in Foreign Language

Students do not want to enroll because	Code	All Subjects	Males	Females	Rankings by 9th/10th Graders	Rankings by 11th/12th Graders
Their friends do not take foreign language	E	**21**	13.5	11	18.5	20
They do not plan to attend college	N	**23**	19.5	22.5	25	13.5
They have not yet passed reading class	S	**24**	25	17.5	25	25
They think teachers are incompetent	S	**25**	23	24.5	24	24

Table 2-2

Explanation of Codes

Reasons were grouped into categories roughly pertaining to the students' perception of		Reasons with this code were ranked by all subjects as
Likelihood for Success in foreign language classes	S	2, 5.5, 10, 21, 24, 25
Usability for knowledge of foreign languages	U	4, 5.5, 7.5, 13, 21
Students' own Enjoyment of foreign language classes	E	1, 3, 7.5, 9, 13, 13, 13, 17, 21
Anticipated Need for foreign language instruction	N	13, 16, 18.5, 18.5, 23

The rank order of reasons for avoidance of foreign language classes was determined by tabulation of the raw data and is shown in boldface type, labeled "All Subjects," in table 2-1. The variation in rankings when participants were subdivided by gender and grade appears in other columns of table 2-1. In some instances, these rankings may seem higher or lower for the whole group than for any of the subdivisions. This occurred because each column was tabulated and listed independently. The "All Subjects" column is not to be construed as an average of the subdivisions.

There were many instances in which two or more reasons scored the same raw-data point totals, or "tied" in importance. These were indicated by the median number of the rankings for all the "tied" reasons. Thus, the rankings often had to be expressed with decimal points.

In addition to the listing of reasons in order of importance as determined by the whole group, there is a code letter for each reason. These codes are explained in table 2-2. Each code letter stands for a category into which each reason was grouped according to similarities.

There are six reasons roughly pertaining to students' perception of likelihood for success in foreign language classes, including the ability to actually learn another language and the ability to earn an acceptable grade. These reasons were coded "S" for success. Five reasons were coded "U" for students' perception of the usability of knowledge of foreign languages. Nine reasons pertained to students' perception of their own enjoyment of the classes and were coded "E." The fourth letter code, "N," stands for students' perception of their need for foreign language instruction. This includes the applicability of foreign language course credits to their high school graduation requirements, college entrance requirements, and the students' belief that all necessary communications in their lives can be done in English.

What Did They Really Tell Us?

The largest number of reasons pertained to enjoyment. This fact is an indication that students in this study may be more concerned with their present comforts than with their futures. Five of the top six reasons for 11th and 12th graders were coded "E" for enjoyment, followed by the two reasons pertaining to usability in careers and in life. These rankings may suggest that 11th and 12th graders are looking to their futures with some misgiving and feel a need for maximum enjoyment while still in high school.

The most important reason for females (and number 3.5 for males) was that "they do not want to." Females and males ranked "would rather take other classes" as third and sixth, respectively, while the upperclassmen put this item as one of their first reasons.

Beginning with the fourth-ranked reason, there was considerable discrepancy in the subdivision participants' rankings. "Too much homework" ranged from 1.5th to 19th place, the greatest spread of any reason. It was coded "E." "It is too hard" is a distinctly separate reason from "too much homework" and was coded "S." "T[illegible] hard" ranked seven places higher than "too much homework." Although these

reasons were coded differently, both can be correlated to the students' work ethic. The students' desire to avoid difficult or demanding courses apparently led most participants to rank these two reasons quite high.

The "boring classes" item was ranked fairly high by all subjects, while "boring teachers" fell in the middle range for all. Six of the reasons were directly related to the prevailing teaching staff and show how influential the particular teachers of the languages in question are. The researcher was relieved to find the "teachers are incompetent" item ranked least important, but the fact that such a reason made the list at all bears consideration.

Upperclassmen (11th and 12th graders) appear to be more concerned with life after high school, as evidenced by the fact that they ranked "don't plan to attend college" much higher than did the other subdivisions. This may indicate that some of them planned to end their formal schooling soon. Most Westside High School graduates do attend college, however, thereby accounting for the "college" reason being ranked 23rd by the whole group.

Several reasons give evidence that students lack a global perspective. The highest ranking of these was about usability in career, ranked at 4th place, followed by pertinence to life at 5.5th place. Males seemed more career- and life-oriented than the other groups, as evidenced by their rankings of those items. Females' rankings of the items about pertinence to career and life were noticeably lower than rankings by other subdivisions of participants.

Other items of a global nature were that the participants do not expect to travel (13th place), that most foreigners speak English (at 18.5th), and that participants do not plan to talk with any foreigners (at 21st place). All these reasons showed perception of little need for foreign language instruction. The participants ranked all "N"-coded items in the lower half of all reasons, including "it is not required" and "don't need the credits for graduation."

All subjects in the study ranked the reason "it is not possible to achieve fluency in high school classes" at 7.5th place. The researcher believes this indicates the students lack an appreciation for the wide range of benefits to be gained from even brief foreign language coursework. They may either not be aware of or not value the cultural insights, ethnic tolerance, and historical and global awareness aspects of foreign language study. They may have expected to be able to converse with native speakers after one year of studying a language. Of course they were disillusioned, and that may have promoted the belief that foreign language study is of little value.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Some participants in this study recognized that it is unlikely that high school students will be fluent in a language even after several years of study. They need to accept that limitation and concentrate on other objectives.

Proponents of foreign language study have long recognized but have failed to "sell" the message that some of the best reasons to take foreign language are to learn about other people and places and to learn *how* to learn. These ideas must be emphasized to the students early enough for them to include foreign language among the courses they choose for their high school programs.

By emphasizing the cultural, historical, economic, and other globally relevant aspects, it may be possible to reach nearly all students with foreign language instruction. But there is need in U.S. society for people who can use other languages expertly. In 1981, Fannetta Gordon proposed that academically gifted children should be selected to become a "cadre of real bilinguals competent in the languages widely used internationally in today's increasingly interdependent world." She intended for only the specially talented few to be expected to become fluent speakers and writers of other languages, while "regular" foreign language classes would be less linguistically and more culturally oriented (Gordon 1981: 1,5). The researcher believes such a plan would accommodate those study participants whose main reasons included "too hard" and "boring."

It may not be feasible for many schools to delineate separate "tracks" for foreign language classes. Marie Trayer in 1991 examined the learning styles of students who had been identified as gifted as compared with the learning styles of average students. Her findings led her to recommend that "a variety of methodologies be used in the language classroom to accommodate the variety of students present" (Trayer 1991: 425). More diverse activities would surely alleviate the objections of those who say it is "boring" and "I don't want to."

U.S. educators should study the foreign language programs in other countries where they are more predominant and apparently more successful, according to Arendt and Warriner-Burke (1990: 450). Arendt and Warriner-Burke proposed several other recommendations, the first of which was to begin foreign language education in the elementary grades. That is standard in most other countries, and former U.S. Secretary of Education William Bennett (1988) concurred when he specified the "new basics."

As communications technology makes the world progressively "smaller," Americans' global perspective must grow larger. The schools are the most effective medium for changing attitudes and the foreign language departments are the most logical school units to tackle the global issues. Collaboration with social studies and business education departments could produce courses that would become powerful vehicles of global education for U.S. students.

All education is on the verge of major change, or needs to be, if one listens to the critics of U.S. schools. Delbert and Roberta Long (1985) noted that the

> Problems we discuss are national in scope and their resolution will require a sustained national effort not only from educators, but from those who play a vital role in shaping educational policy—the general public and its legislative representatives. (p. 366)

All phases of education, but particularly foreign language education, need both financial and moral support in much greater measure.

We educators need to mount a massive public relations campaign for the value of our work and our achievements. The students who avoid us in foreign language will be a good target audience for a start. Their attitudes, discovered in this study, are representative of the great "melting pot" of Americans. We can restore those global perspectives that were so carefully eliminated if we will examine the objections to our programs and go to work on them.

Notes

1. For further information on the unique design of this study, contact Mary Ann Pederson, Westside High School, Omaha, NE 68114, (402) 390-3335.
2. The Q-sort technique was devised by William Stephenson (1953) as a research tool oriented toward individual people's ideas. Each participant in the Q-sort session of this study received a set of 3- by 5-inch index cards, each bearing one of the reasons for nonenrollment identified in the brainstorming sessions. He or she placed each card in one of five categories representing the amount of importance attached to that reason. By assigning number values to the categories, point totals for each reason could be calculated and later compared.

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3
Exploring Student Beliefs about Language Learning

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Introduction

Much of the literature in language learning[1] during the past two years has dealt with some aspect of the role that individual differences among learners play in the classroom.[2] A considerable number of recent articles and books have investigated, in particular, learner styles as one manifestation of individual differences.[3] One aspect of individual differences that has not been fully explored is the area of student beliefs about language learning. Most beginning language students who have not yet started their language course have preconceived notions of what language learning is all about. Each student has a particular set of beliefs.

While each beginning language student has a unique view of what language learning is all about, certain beliefs appear to be shared. This article will describe beliefs about language learning held by 70 university students who filled out a short questionnaire called *Beliefs about Language Learning (BLL)* (see Appendix), which the authors devised. The goal of this article is to inform teachers about some of the beliefs held by students starting the first course in a lower-level language sequence at a college or university. The teacher who is aware of the "baggage," both good and bad, brought by students to class on the first day will be better prepared to tailor both the methodology and the teaching style to suit student needs.[4]

Student Beliefs as One Aspect of Individual Differences: The Literature

Research has been conducted in the area of individual differences in second language learning since the birth of the profession. Scholars have investigated aspects of individual differences such as student learning styles, degree of motivation—with its subsets (1) attitudes toward the people of the target culture and toward foreign people in general and (2) orientation toward the learning task itself—language aptitude, and levels of language anxiety.[5]

During the last two years, the area of individual differences has become one of the dominant second language research trends. Most of the scholars studying individual differences posit that instruction is more effective when adapted to meet individual student needs as much as is practically possible. The literature encourages teachers to discern individual student learning styles through observation, counseling, and testing. Learning-style information can help the teacher better exploit student strengths and reverse or downplay student weaknesses. The teacher can then adjust the methodology accordingly. Administrative constraints such as class size usually prevent the teacher from modifying the methodology significantly and, typically, the most the teacher can do is to "individualize" homework assignments.

Oxford and Lavine (1992) propose a series of six suggestions for dealing with potential teacher–student style conflicts that the authors of this article suggest can also serve as the basis of a program for individualizing the curricula. The six suggestions are:

1. Assess students' and teachers' styles and use this information in understanding classroom dynamics.
2. Change your behavior as a teacher.
3. Change students' behavior.
4. Change the way group work is done in the classroom.
5. Change the curriculum.
6. Change the way style conflicts are viewed (pp. 42, 43, 44).

While a considerable amount of literature has been written about different aspects of individual differences such as student learning styles, these authors could only find one article that focused exclusively on student beliefs about language learning: Horwitz's (1987) "Surveying Student Beliefs about Language Learning." In the article, Horwitz describes an instrument she developed in 1983 to assess student beliefs about language learning—the *Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)*. The BALLI contains a series of statements about language learning that Horwitz grouped into five categories: foreign language aptitude; the difficulty of language learning; the nature of language learning; learning and communication strategies; and motivations. Students reacted to the statements using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree. Horwitz administered the survey to 32 university students from 12 countries who were registered at the intermediate level in the Intensive English Program at the University of Texas, Austin. The highlights of the results are

1. Foreign language aptitude: 81 percent thought that some people are born with a special ability to learn a foreign language. Eighty-four percent believed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. Eighty-five percent stated that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.
2. The difficulty of language learning: 75 percent declared that some languages are easier than others and that English, the language they are trying to learn, is of at least average difficulty.
3. The nature of language learning: Over 50 percent thought that the most important part of learning a language is learning vocabulary words or grammar rules. Sixty-three percent believed that it is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.
4. Learning and communication strategies: 90 percent stated that it is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation. Thirty-eight percent declared that you shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.
5. Motivations: 78 percent associated the ability to speak English with better job opportunities. Over half said that they would like to learn English so that they can get to know Americans better (pp. 119–29).

Campbell and Ortiz (1991a) briefly discussed student beliefs about language learning in an article on language anxiety. The survey they devised to determine levels of language anxiety in students in the foreign language classroom setting—*Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom*—included five items on student beliefs about language learning. The survey was administered to over 150 beginning second language learners at the Defense Language Institute at four strategic points in the course: at the start of the course (S1), before the course began; two weeks after the start of the course (S2); at course midpoint (S3); at course end (S4). According to the survey results, between 22 and 55 percent of the students appeared to believe the five statements about language learning *before* they started the course. (See table 3-1.)

Some of the data revealed confusing fluctuations from survey to survey. For example, for the statement "It is necessary to have a special aptitude (i.e., an inborn talent) in order to learn a foreign language well," 46 percent strongly agreed or agreed in Survey 1, 21 percent in Survey 2, 46 percent in Survey 3; and 33 percent in Survey 4.

Recently, the authors of this article created a short instrument designed to investigate beliefs about language learning held by second language learners, the *Beliefs about Language Learning (BLL)*. The BLL specifically focuses on beliefs held by students before they begin the first course in a lower-level language sequence at a college or university. A panel of one statistician, one second language research expert, and one second language measurement expert examined the BLL and concluded that it was a valid measure of student beliefs about language learning. All three people had an extensive background in language teaching and testing.

The BLL differs from the BALLI in three ways. First, the BLL has only one version; the BALLI has two versions—one for U.S. second language students and one for foreign-born ESL students. Second, the BLL includes a special section in

Table 3-1

Beliefs Items from the Survey of Attitudes

Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom (SASFLC)
(Percentages of Strongly Agree and Agree)

	Survey			
	S1*	**S2**	**S3**	**S4**
1. I think that the standard FL high school course is more difficult than the standard "numerically-oriented" high school course such as Algebra 1.	22**	25	16	0
2. I think that the standard FL high school course is more difficult than the standard "verbally-oriented" high school course such as History.	40	38	32	0
6. It is necessary to have a special "ear" in order to learn a FL well.	55	38	54	33
8. It is necessary to have a special aptitude (i.e., an inborn talent) in order to learn a FL well.	46	21	46	33
13. It is necessary to have a special intelligence (i.e., a higher I.Q.) in order to learn a FL well.	31	18	39	33

Source: C. Campbell and J. Ortiz. 1986. Defense Language Institute.

* The four surveys were administered to a sample of 176 subjects according to the following schedule: S1 at the start of the course, before the course began; S2 two weeks after the start of the course; S3 at course midpoint; S4 at course end.

** Data in this table are rounded to the nearest whole number. Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

which students are asked to write any beliefs they have about language learning aside from those stated in the survey. Third, the BLL is considerably shorter than the BALLI: Horwitz's BALLI has 34 items; the BLL has 7 items and the write-in section mentioned above.

The Development and Administration of the *Beliefs about Language Learning* Questionnaire

Questionnaire Development

The BLL is a short instrument that assesses beliefs about language learning held by students starting the first course in a lower-level language sequence at a college or university. Before creating the BLL, the authors studied instruments for measuring attitudes and reactions from other fields such as psychology, consulted with professionals in the foreign language field, and asked more than 500 students to respond to questions on their beliefs about language learning. Several of the statements in the BLL are based on language learning information gleaned from Pimsleur's (1980) text *How to Learn a Foreign Language*. The BLL contains seven statements about language learning to which students reacted using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree.

The statements in the BLL dealt with five areas: grammar, aptitude, fluency, and pronunciation. Six of the statements could be called "misconceptions," because

research has shown them to be untrue. For example, the statement "It is more challenging to learn how to use the grammar of a second language than learning how to use the vocabulary" is widely accepted as a misconception. According to Pimsleur (1980) and others, vocabulary is considered to be more challenging.

The authors field-tested 13 items in the original questionnaire to detect which items were ambiguous or confusing in some way to the questionnaire taker. Items with low item–total correlation coefficients were eliminated. The final version of the questionnaire contains 7 items and a write-in section.[6] It takes approximately three minutes to administer.

Although the BLL is short, it is a practical and useful tool for instructors interested in finding out what preconceived notions about language learning beginning language students have. Other researchers, such as MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991), have used short questionnaires like the BLL successfully in their research.

Questionnaire Administration

The BLL was administered on the first day of the course *before* the teacher began teaching in order to minimize course effect on student beliefs. Horwitz's study did not specify when exactly the BALLI was administered during the course. The 70 students who were administered the BLL were registered in two Spanish 101 courses and two French 101 courses at a major Midwestern university. The subjects were distributed as follows: 9—FR 101; 11—FR 101; 25—SP 101; 25—SP 101. Two teachers administered the questionnaire: one taught the two French courses; the other taught the two Spanish courses.

Because the university in question requires two semesters of high school language to be considered for admission, it can be assumed that the subjects had taken at least two years of high school foreign language.

Questionnaire Results

Three of seven items in the BLL dealt with some aspect of learning grammar (see table 3-2). The results reported here show the number of students who responded "Strongly Agree" and those who responded "Agree" to statements in the BLL. For each statement in the table, a percentage was computed by dividing the total number of students who responded to the statement into the "pooled" number of those who responded "Strongly Agree" and those who responded "Agree."

Sixty-six percent of the students believed that learning how to use the grammar of another language correctly is more challenging than learning how to use the vocabulary of another language correctly. Seventy-three percent thought that a language learner must memorize grammar rules to learn a language well. Thirty-nine percent believed that the grammar needed to become reasonably competent in a language is unlimited in scope and complexity.

Two items examined language aptitude. Ninety-one percent of the students thought that most people can learn a foreign language, but some learn faster than

Table 3-2

Beliefs about Language Learning
(Numbers and Percentages of Strongly Agree and Agree)

1. Learning how to use the grammar of another language correctly is more challenging than learning how to use the vocabulary of another language correctly.	(N=46; 66%)
2. A language learner must memorize grammar rules to learn the language well.	(N=51; 73%)
3. The grammar needed to become reasonably competent in a language is unlimited in scope and complexity.	(N=27; 39%)
4. A fluent speaker of a language, i.e., some like yourself in English, knows at least 15,000 words.	(N=40; 58%)
5. Most people can learn a foreign language, but some are faster at it than others.	(N=63; 91%)
6. A language learner must have a capacity to mimic sounds to learn a language well.	(N=55; 80%)
7. A non-native speaker of a foreign language must have near-native, i.e., nearly perfect, pronunciation to be understood by native speakers.	(N=4; 6%)*

*In item 7, no subject selected "Strongly Agree."

others. Eighty percent believed that a language learner must have a capacity to mimic sounds to learn a language well.

One item focused on fluency. Fifty-eight percent of the students thought that fluent speakers of a language know at least 15,000 words—that is, have a vocabulary whose size is similar to their own in English. Another item dealt with pronunciation. Only 6 percent agreed (not strongly agreed) that a nonnative speaker of a foreign language must have near-native, i.e., nearly perfect, pronunciation to be understood by native speakers.

One-half of the students used the fill-in section to add their own beliefs about language learning. The beliefs expressed in the fill-in section of the survey can be grouped into three categories: the role of age; the value of repetition; keys to successful language learning. Over a third of the students believed that the younger foreign language learner is a better language learner than the older learner. Four students thought that repetition of vocabulary words and expressions would enhance learning. Three students wrote that exposure and meaningful practice are critical to learning a second language. Three students said that determination and motivation are necessary to succeed in second language learning. Two declared that hard work is the key to success. One wrote that open-mindedness is the essential element in successful language learning. One thought that the teacher's teaching ability was the essential element.

Discussion

If the results of the BLL are representative of some of the beliefs about second language learning held by university students across the country, then the data for

items 1, 2, and 3 about grammar suggest that almost three-fourths of students just beginning the first course in a lower-level language sequence at colleges or universities regard grammar as a language component to be learned rather than to be acquired. While older generations of language learners who were weaned on the burgundy *ALM* textbooks might hold this belief, the younger generations straight out of high school should think differently. In theory, they have been doing personalized communicative activities as part of a student-centered, proficiency-oriented high school curriculum. Were they listening to lengthy grammar lectures and doing traditional grammar exercises in class or were they engaging in meaningful communication while doing pair and group work? One might conclude that they were doing the former. If this is so and the results of the BLL are representative of the beliefs of university students across the country, the proficiency message has yet to reach many K–12 second language teachers.

The data for item 5 dealing with language aptitude indicate that most students have a healthy, positive attitude toward language learning; they do believe they can succeed. It appears they also believe that some people have a special "talent" for it. These results contradict the wealth of literature that supports the notion that students just beginning the first course in a lower-level language sequence at colleges or universities suffer from language anxiety. The data for the other item about aptitude—item 6—when examined jointly with the data from item 5, suggest that the vast majority of students believe that most people have a special capacity essential to language learning: the capacity to mimic sounds.

The data for item 4 about fluency indicate that almost two-thirds of students grossly overestimate the fluent speaker's knowledge of vocabulary. According to Pimsleur (1980), the fluent speaker knows approximately 5,000 words.[7]

The data for item 7 dealing with pronunciation suggests that the majority of students believe that they can be understood by a native speaker if their pronunciation is at least fair.

Of the 34 students who used the fill-in section to add their own beliefs about language learning, over a third are convinced that the younger foreign language learner is a better language learner than the older learner. The issue is still being debated in research circles. A few students are sure that repetition of vocabulary words and expressions will ensure learning; perhaps some well-meaning but traditional audiolingual teacher in high school assured them that daily use of flash cards and systematic memorization of dialogues would help them "learn" the target language. The keys to successful language learning provided by a few students were relevant.

Implications of the Results for the Classroom: Suggestions for Teachers

As explained earlier, six of the seven statements in the BLL could be called "misconceptions" because research has shown them to be untrue. How can teachers dispel those misconceptions and promote a positive attitude toward language learning among students? Below are four practical approaches for teachers.

Approach A

Teachers can determine some of the beliefs their students have by using instruments such as the BALLI and the BLL on the first day of class before beginning to teach the target language. Administering an instrument of this sort *before* starting to teach minimizes the effect of the teaching itself on student beliefs about language learning. Back in the office, teachers can review questionnaire results either by tallying all the responses or by just reading through them. On the second day of class, teachers can then discuss the results in English. The class should be conducted as a roundtable discussion with the teacher as discussion facilitator, not lecturer.

Since discussion is difficult with more than fifteen students, teachers with larger classes can divide students on the first day of class into two groups of fifteen—Group A and Group B. Group A is asked to come on the second day of class for a discussion session; Group B is asked to spend the second day of class completing an assignment in the lab, library, or home. On the third day of class, Group B comes to class for the discussion session while Group A does the assignment. Those teachers who have more than 30 students should arrange for three discussion sessions during the first week of class. Undoubtedly, some teachers reading this might complain that "there just isn't enough time" for this type of activity. The authors, on the other hand, suggest that teachers who are interested in tailoring methodology and teaching style to suit student needs will find that the time is well spent. The first few hours of a course can set the tone for the entire course. Dispelling student misconceptions and combating negative attitudes at the outset can help create a more positive learning environment.

Approach B

Just as in Approach A above, teachers can determine some of the beliefs their students have by using instruments such as the BALLI and the BLL on the first day of class before beginning to teach the target language. After teachers review questionnaire results back in their office, they can create their own one-hour lesson adapting material from books such as Pimsleur's *How to Learn a Foreign Language* (1980), Rubin and Thompson's (1982) *How to Be a More Successful Foreign Language Learner*, and Brown's (1991) *Breaking the Language Barrier: Creating Your Own Pathway to Success*. The purpose of all three books is to persuade the apprehensive second language learner that he or she can succeed. Given the questionnaire responses, teachers can use information in the books to create exercises especially suited to the particular group of students. The discussion session on the second day of class would be conducted like the session described in Approach A above.

Teachers must be careful not to break any copyright laws when using or adapting material from the books mentioned. Teachers who want to photocopy an exercise from any of the three books should call the publishers and discuss the matter. Ideally, the teachers' school or department should make thirty copies of each book available to faculty who want to use them in their classes.

Approach C

Teachers who want a less structured approach can disregard the BALLI or BLL and simply ask students to talk about their beliefs about language learning in discussion sessions like the ones described in Approaches A and B. Teachers who plan to do this should review one or more of the texts mentioned in Approach B so as to be knowledgeable about the myths and reality of learning a language. Teachers interested in using a discussion tool created by Campbell and Ortiz (1991b) called "Myths and Reality of Language Learning" for the discussion session can contact the authors of this article.

The teacher for whom it would be administratively difficult to arrange the fifteen-student discussion sessions can simply use the first hour of the course to discuss with the class, in English, their beliefs about language learning. As stated earlier, teachers should do some prior reading of the texts mentioned in Approach B.

Approach D

Teachers interested in a long-term program to dispel misconceptions and promote a positive attitude toward language learning among students can use Brown's (1989) *A Practical Guide to Language Learning: A Fifteen-Week Program of Strategies for Success*. Designed to accompany an introductory language course and intended to be used by students outside of the classroom, *A Practical Guide* contains fifteen brief chapters that form a semester-long program of strategies for successful language learning. Written in a highly readable style, the book is an important student aid. Although it is included in the ancillary package provided to all teachers who adopt an introductory second language textbook by the same publisher, it is especially geared to students. Teachers can decide whether to use parts of the book in classroom activities or merely to assign them as outside reading.

Conclusion

The questionnaire results suggest that a considerable number of students in colleges and universities (and in high schools, the authors suggest) arrive on the first day of class with beliefs about language learning, both positive and negative, that can affect their performance. Teachers knowledgeable about student beliefs can help dispel misconceptions and promote a positive attitude toward language learning among students. Knowledge about student beliefs can help teachers make intelligent decisions about how best to adapt methodology and teaching style to achieve what should be the ultimate goal of today's language teacher—to meet student learning and communication needs.

Notes

1. No distinction is made here between the terms "language learning" and "language acquisition."
2. Consult, for example, Lorraine Strasheim, ed., *Focus on the Foreign Language Learner: Priorities and Strategies*, 1991, and Sally Magnan, ed., *Shifting the Instructional Focus to the Learner*, 1990.

3. See, for example, articles by Oxford et al. (1990); Oxford, Ehrman, and Lavine (1991); and Oxford and Lavine (1992).
4. In this article, a distinction is made between teaching methodology, i.e., methods and instructional activities, and teacher or learner style, e.g., global, analytic, auditory, or visual as defined by Oxford, Ehrman, and Lavine (1991).
5. Consult, for example, the following references: on learning styles, Oxford et al. (1990), Oxford, Ehrman, and Lavine (1991), and Oxford and Lavine (1992); on motivation, Campbell (1992), Carroll (1960, 1961a, 1961b), Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972), Larsen and Smalley (1972), Macnamara (1973), Schumann (1975); on aptitude, Carroll (1956, 1958, 1961a, 1961b) and Parry and Stansfield, eds. (1990); and on anxiety, Campbell and Ortiz (1988, 1991a, 1991b) and Horwitz and Young, eds. (1991).
6. Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, reliability analysis for internal consistency in the BLI was .60. It can be argued that the rather low reliability coefficient for the 7 items is due to the small number of items involved. An instrument with a small number of items can yield a small reliability coefficient. Doubling the number of items in the BLI, using the Spearman-Brown formula, for example, would yield a reliability coefficient of .75.
7. Pimsleur did not differentiate between active and passive vocabulary knowledge. The passage context suggests that he meant the former.

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Appendix 8A:
Beliefs about Language Learning

Please answer this questionnaire honestly and carefully. As the results will be used to improve the current foreign language program, it is very important that you spend time thinking about each answer. Your answers will never be revealed in connection with your name.

Please respond to the statements below using the following scale:

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

1. Learning how to use the grammar of another language correctly is more challenging than learning how to use the vocabulary of another language correctly.
   1 2 3 4 5

2. A language learner must memorize grammar rules to learn the language well.
   1 2 3 4 5

3. The grammar needed to become reasonably competent in a language is unlimited in scope and complexity.
   1 2 3 4 5

4. A fluent speaker of a language, i.e., someone like yourself in English, knows at least 15,000 words.
   1 2 3 4 5

5. Most people can learn a foreign language, but some are faster at it than others.
   1 2 3 4 5

6. A language learner must have a capacity to mimic sounds to learn a language well.
   1 2 3 4 5

7. A non-native speaker of a foreign language must have near- native, i.e., nearly perfect, pronunciation to be understood by native speakers.
   1 2 3 4 5

What other beliefs about language learning do you have? The authors of this survey are interested in what beliefs you might have. Please share them with us. Please list them below:

1. _____
_____
_____
_____

2. _____
_____
_____
_____

(over)

4
Whole Language and Foreign Language Proficiency:
Natural Approaches to Language Learning

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What Is Whole Language?

Educational journals and books are inundated with the term *whole language* (Watson et al. 1989; McConaghy 1988; Gunderson & Shapiro 1988; Altwerger et al. 1987; Weaver 1988; Goodman 1986), but there does not seem to be a clear agreement on what the term really means. Bergeron (1990) conducted a content analysis of sixty-four professional articles related to whole language and composed the following description:

> Whole language is a concept that embodies both a philosophy of language development as well as the instructional approaches embedded within, and supportive of, that philosophy. This concept includes the use of real literature and writing in the context of meaningful, functional, and cooperative experiences in order to develop in students motivation and interest in the process of learning. (p. 319)

Consensus on the fundamental features of the philosophy include (1) that language develops naturally and is therefore a social phenomenon used for communication purposes, (2) that language learning and teaching must be personalized in order to meet the needs and interest of each learner, and (3) that language learning is considered to be a part of making sense of the world; language therefore does not need to be learned separately first, but rather is learned holistically in context, not in bits and pieces in isolation (Froese 1991: 2).

Theorists often disagree whether whole language is a method, an approach, a set of beliefs, or a professional theory. Some argue that *whole language* is another

label for "whole word" learning. Publishers have marketed "whole language" workbooks, flashcards, and reading series that often make traditional classroom teaching look very similar to whole-language teaching. These misrepresentations of "whole language" are in contradiction to what whole language is intended to be: "a child-centered, literature-based approach to language teaching that immerses students in real communication situations" (Froese 1991: 3); "a learner-focused [curriculum] that holds to a conception of the 'whole child,' of the active learner, of the classroom as a community, and of teachers who learn and learners who teach" (Edelsky et al. 1991: 7); "a philosophy concerning how children learn, from which educators derive strategies for teaching" (Morrow 1993: 19).

Why Whole Language Evolved

First-language acquisition seems to be a relatively painless way of learning language. No formal teaching is involved and there is a rather lengthy listening phase (approximately two years in length) followed by a rapidly progressing speaking phase. By the time a child is three or four, she or he can communicate most needs and relate to the world around them. When students attend school, language seems to become a problematic issue, most especially in the area of reading. This apparent paradox has been investigated by linguists, psychologists, and educators as an area of concern. Linguists have discovered that children learned to use language through meaningful, social interactions in combination with other sign systems. Language, then, is used for communication in real situations and is functional in origin. Psychologists have learned that children internalize "rules" about language: they construct how language works and then overgeneralize these rules. Psychologists suggest that language may be analyzed for structure and how it is used. Whether language is used to persuade or inform can be considered (Tough 1977) in that language learners are motivated to correct meaning rather than to correct form (Froese 1991: 8). Educational researchers have investigated effective language-learning strategies such as cooperative learning, learner-centered curriculum organization, and observational and assessment techniques (e.g., portfolio assessment). Such investigations have contributed to a better understanding of how to optimize learning in the classroom. The selection of appropriate materials and reading as an interactive, constructive process are two additional areas researched by educators. The research has resulted in the realization that general strategic knowledge functions in close alliance with specific content knowledge (Perkins & Salomon 1989).

Proponents of whole language believe that children are eager to learn when they come to school and that learning is an effortless process that is constant without great effort or pain. Children begin school with an acquired vocabulary of 10,000 words (Gursky 1991: 23) and a good grasp of grammar rules without benefit of formal language and grammar instruction. Based on this observation, whole-language advocates stress that language should be kept whole and children should use language in ways that relate to their own lives and culture. The ideal classroom is one that is child-centered, in which the teacher is a co-learner and a resource who shares power with the students and allows them to make choices. The

teacher's role is to provide a content-rich environment and to provide engaging, hands-on, active learning activities that meet the interests and talents of the students. Students collaborate with each other in the learning process and thus learning becomes a social act.

Since children already know how to speak and listen when they begin school, their formal instruction in language begins with reading. That is why the two camps of learning have fought in the reading arena. "The Great Reading Debate" really raises a much more profound question about pedagogy and the nature and purpose of schooling (Gursky 1991: 23).

The Great Reading Debate

In the last twenty years the framework for whole language has been evolving. The research initially began in the area of reading and the process of reading (Goodman 1968, 1969; Smith 1971). According to the whole-language perspective, reading is a transactional process (Rosenblatt 1978; Goodman 1984) in which the reader brings his or her own experiences to the reading of the text, combines this with the cues provided by the text, and constructs a unique interpretation (Edelsky et al. 1991: 20). Whole-language approaches to reading include a variety of children's literature in their curriculum. Charlotte Huck (1987) defines literature as "the imaginative shaping of life and thought into the forms and structures of language" (Froese 1991: 52). Songs, stories, poetry, chapters from novels, and stories serve as springboards for creative activity. Literature becomes a teaching tool to engage students actively in reading. Stanley Fish (1980) argues for the incorporation of literary texts into the foreign language classroom by placing the emphasis on the "responses" of the reader of a literary text, rather than treating a text as an object in and of itself. He argues that, without a reader, a literary text is nothing more than vowels and consonants. The text is activated when the reader brings a wealth of experiences with him or her to the text. The text, then, essentially has two authors, (1) the person who wrote it (author) and (2) the person who receives it (reader).

An author writes a text in order to produce an effect (entertainment, drama, information, moral point of view). The subjective factors (experiences, wishes, disposition, needs) of the reader influence and determine the understanding of the text. Reading then is an active process in which the secure reader fills in the voids (*Unbestimmtheitsstellen*, Bredella 1985) left open in the text. These voids are tentatively filled by the personal experiences and knowledge of the reader. Literature and literary texts would thus serve as a communicative springboard for the responses on the part of the reader to the text. This allows for innumerable interpretations of the text and would make literary texts compatible with the goals of the proficiency-oriented foreign language classroom (Moeller 1991).

Fish (1980) defines responses to include "any and all of the activities provoked by a string of words: the projection of syntactical and/or lexical probabilities—their subsequent occurrence or nonoccurrences; attitudes towards persons, or things, or ideas referred to, the reversal or questioning of these attitudes and much more" (p. 27). The role of the teacher in the classroom then is to capitalize on "the preexisting

schema the students bring with them to the reading of a literary text and to encourage them to express these experiences using all skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening)" (Moeller 1991: 4). This philosophy of reading implies that there is no one "single" interpretation or meaning for a given text, which is in direct contrast to most reading and literature instruction, where the teacher "transmits information to students, who spend most of their time as docile recipient" (Gursky 1991: 32).

Whole Language and Diversity

The emphasis in the whole-language classroom is not merely on being able to decode, or being able to recite words on a page, but rather to be able to read with comprehension. As content enters the curriculum, nonmainstream students begin to fall behind in part because they have not learned to read with comprehension, only to decode. Often they do not understand the content because it is alien to their cultural backgrounds. These students have no personal reference to many of the concepts in social studies or literature that they are "reading." Whole language advocates adapting the curriculum and classroom activities to the needs and interests of the children. Kenneth Goodman, author of numerous books about whole language, states "schools have a tendency to treat difference as deficiency. Whole language treats differences as something to be expected and builds on that. That's why it works so well with Native Americans, bilingual kids, black kids in urban and rural settings" (Gursky 1991: 27).

Writing as a Dynamic Process

Like reading, writing is regarded as a dynamic process in which learners discover new meanings. Writers continuously revise their words, sentences, meanings, and thoughts. Like reading, writing is functional in that we write for a purpose (convince, inform, persuade). In traditional programs, writing skills are learned, beginning with handwriting, copying the letters of the alphabet, spelling, transcription of texts, and an emphasis on the mechanics of writing. In a whole-language classroom, writing achieves a language function and is treated as a means of discovery and communication rather than as a series of discrete skills to be mastered one after another. Writing then serves the needs of the children to express and illuminate their thoughts. The teacher helps the child to define the purpose for the writing activity, then works as a co-editor in achieving spelling and punctuation skills. The emphasis lies on meaning, all writings are regarded as works in progress, and thus no writing sample is regarded as a failure. As the format evolves, the teacher serves as a resource to help shape the work into a suitable piece. Stephen and Susan Tchudi (1983) point out that writing can serve a most important objective in helping students to learn and understand the content in all areas of the school curriculum: "When students write imaginatively about scientific principles—say, using their knowledge from a unit on fuels to write a futuristic story about transportation—they will learn their subject more effectively than when they merely master the basic concepts in the textbook" (Froese

1991: 125). The self-confidence the students will gain in their ability to express their own ideas and feelings will help them to become aware of the many ways in which language works. In essence, whole language encourages the actual participation in reading and writing, not reading and writing exercises.

Oral Language with Purpose

Children learn to talk long before they read and write; this desire to communicate orally is the cornerstone of successful literacy experiences. As students read for pleasure and write to communicate, they use talk as a means of sharing their ideas. Real people use real language for real purposes (Goodman 1986; Altwerger et al. 1987). In the whole-language classroom, students are presented with a real language situation and from that whole seek to make personal meanings. In the whole-language classroom, the students are introduced to whole books, not isolated sight words; in writing, students are encouraged to invent spellings, the emphasis being on creating meaning for the learner not on the drilling of spelling words. In the whole-language classroom, talk is encouraged (1) to help students discover the unique aspects of a book and to discover similarities and differences among other books and authors and (2) to discuss their writing and try out a piece of writing on someone and ask for help and feedback. Rosen (1989) and Phelan (1989) have stressed the importance of talk in the classroom, while Lindfors (1987) has shown that talk can expand a child's theory of the world and increase the retention of knowledge. Judith Newman (1985) points out that teachers in the whole-language classroom try to shift the responsibility for learning so that it rests more heavily on the students. Students are given choices and allowed to take more responsibility for their own learning, more interaction patterns are possible, and students begin to take a more active role in controlling the talk.

Searle (1987) has stated that *intent*, or the desire to use language for a personal purpose, is the driving force behind all language use. In order to lower the anxiety level to optimize talking in the classroom, a comfortable atmosphere must be established. Acceptance and encouragement should be stressed rather than evaluation. When a certain degree of comfort exists, students feel secure and valued. Whole language encourages students to express their own opinions and ideas, but in order to do this, students must feel comfortable enough to take the risk when they are unsure or wrong. Teachers must model this behavior and establish an atmosphere of learning together, a community of learners. Little and Sanders suggest that "communication does not actually take place in the classroom unless the language learners are a community" (Little and Sanders 1989: 277).

What's Whole about Foreign Language?

Many of the features of whole language noted above are strongly evident in the proficiency-oriented movement in foreign language teaching. Upon analysis of Omaggio-Hadley's (1986) five working hypotheses for foreign language methodology and proficiency, the similarities with whole-language philosophy become

very apparent. Hypothesis 1 states that opportunities must be provided for students to practice using language in a range of contexts likely to be encountered in the target culture. Ken Goodman (1986) feels foreign language programs in U.S. schools have been largely unsuccessful because the language is "isolated from real speech and literacy events, and most American children have no use for the second language as they learn it" (p. 17). He continues by stating "to be successful, school second language programs must incorporate authentic functional language opportunities" (p. 17). This real-world connection "that immerses students in real communication situations whenever possible" (Froese 1991: vii) is a shared goal of proficiency-oriented and whole-language classrooms. Krashen's (1982) theoretical model of second language acquisition, which is a subconscious process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language, maintains much as whole language does that acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order when that acquisition is a natural one, not a formal learning of isolated grammar skills.

Krashen distinguishes between language acquisition and language learning, the latter being a conscious knowledge of the rules of grammar of a second language and their application in production. Krashen's monitor hypothesis states that acquisition is the sole initiator of all second-language utterances and is responsible for fluency, while learning can function only as an "editor" or "monitor" for the output. In his input hypothesis, Krashen claims learners "go for meaning" first, and, as a result, acquire structure as well. Language then is acquired only when learners are exposed to "comprehensible input"—language that contains structures that are "a little beyond" the learner's current level of competence ($i = 1$), but which is comprehensible through the use of context, the knowledge of the world, and other extralinguistic cues directed to the learner. Krashen continues by stating that input does need to be deliberately planned to contain appropriate structures: if communication is successful and there is enough of it, $i + 1$ is provided automatically.

The final part of the input hypothesis maintains that speaking fluency cannot be taught directly, but rather "emerges" naturally over time. Krashen maintains that although early speech is not grammatically accurate, accuracy will develop over time as the learner hears and understands more input. Whole-language supporters maintain that form follows function in language development (Goodman 1986: 18) and that learning is facilitated if it meets a functional, real communicative need or purpose. Language learning is regarded as a process of social and personal invention that is constantly tested, modified, and perfected while using it. Language is regarded as being learned from whole to part and can only be learned "within the whole utterance in a real speech event" (Froese 1991: 19).

Corollaries 1, 2, and 3 of Omaggio-Hadley's (1986) first hypothesis state that students should be encouraged to express their own meaning as early as possible, that active communicative interaction should be promoted, and that creative language practice should be encouraged. Whole language views language development as occurring through actual use. The acquisition process is viewed as one of generating and testing hypotheses about language subsystems (Edelsky et al. 1991: 17), and language learners hypothesize rules based on "input" during actual use, not through conscious effort or through being directly taught the rules themselves

(Edelsky et al. 1991: 18). Mistakes then are necessary in order to construct these rules firsthand.

According to Selinker and Lamendella (1979) fossilization can occur if the learner sees no reason to improve his or her interim grammar and decides that it is adequate to serve his or her needs. This is unlikely to happen in a formal classroom where there is a scaffolding approach to language learning. Stevick (1976) states that "building toward accuracy" does not imply that students should be expected to produce only correct utterances in the target language. "Creating" with language implies a taking of risks to go beyond one's current level of competence to communicate a novel message.

Corollary 4 of Omaggio-Hadley's first hypothesis promotes the use of authentic language whenever possible. Proficiency-oriented instruction promotes learning language in logical context, either through authentic discourse-length input or through language-learning materials that simulate authentic input using sentences that follow in logical sequence (Omaggio-Hadley 1986: 116). Optimal use of authentic texts (e.g., ads, songs, TV listings, literary texts, cartoons, comics, videos) is encouraged to optimize a real-world connection in the classroom. Coody and Nelson (1982) suggest that when children hear stories and poems read aloud, their listening skills improve. As children talk about their responses to literature, their oral language abilities are enhanced. When literary styles are explored, they find models for personal writing. As they share stories and novels, their reading is enriched. Literature, an authentic text, then becomes a source of entertainment and becomes "fun," not drudgery.

Omaggio-Hadley's (1986) second hypothesis for a proficiency-oriented classroom states that opportunities should be provided for students to practice carrying out a range of functions likely to be necessary in dealing with others in the target culture. Functions are defined as tasks accomplished, attitudes expressed, and tone conveyed (e.g., being able to defend, make inquiries, hypothesize) in everyday situations. Traditional classrooms have merely asked learners to respond to questions, placing the learner in a respondent posture only and not that of active questioner, initiator, and conversant. The proficiency-oriented classroom incorporates a variety of these universal functions that are carefully sequenced to facilitate real-world communication. As Searle (1987) has noted, if the intent to use language belongs only to the teacher and the child is allowed to respond only to the teacher's comprehension questions, the child may provide only the briefest answer and thereby the child's language is greatly curtailed. The teacher should become a listener and facilitator, supportive and sensitive to what the child is trying to say.

This student-centered approach is central to both whole language and proficiency, not only in the teacher–student interactions, but also in the student–student interactions. In order to become proficient speakers both in the first and in the second language, learners must speak *in* the language, not *about* the language. This means that the teacher delegates the responsibility of helping students to the other students, encourages spontaneous questions, and is a member of the group, but not necessarily the dominant member. The responsibility of the discussion falls on the learners.

In the foreign language classroom, cooperative learning can be incorporated to place the responsibility of learning on the students. Through group and pair work activities, students speak in the language while eliciting and giving information. Through conversation cards and simulations, the students must argue, defend, and hypothesize in the target language. These activities must be contextualized to be meaningful and be of interest to the students in order to optimize learning.

Omaggio-Hadley's (1986) third hypothesis encourages the development of linguistic accuracy. Because proficiency-oriented classrooms encourage learners to create with the language and express their own meanings from the onset of instruction, mistakes will occur readily. But, as in whole language, these mistakes are regarded as natural and are developmental in nature. Grammar will be fine-tuned as language emerges, but complex grammar learning is reserved for the more advanced language classroom. In the beginning and intermediate second language classroom, the emphasis is on vocabulary building, risk-taking, and creating with the language.

Error-correction strategies to avoid early error fossilization have been researched and incorporated into the proficiency-oriented classroom. Experimentation with peer correction, self-correction, and teacher correction have been carefully examined and delineated in the foreign language teaching literature (Omaggio-Hadley 1986: 294–305). In both the whole-language and the proficiency movements, errors and mistakes are regarded as a natural developmental phase toward emerging accuracy. Creativity is encouraged and promoted, not mastery of isolated grammar or spelling or lexical units.

Hypothesis 4 of Omaggio-Hadley (1986) addresses the need to respond to the affective needs as well as the cognitive needs of the student. Krashen outlined the following conditions as necessary for language acquisition to occur: (1) the learner is motivated, (2) she or he has self-confidence and a good self-image, and (3) his or her level of anxiety is low. Krashen suggests that second language learners not be required to produce speech until they are "ready" to do so. Speaking fluency cannot be taught, but "emerges" naturally in time with enough comprehensible input. To lower the affective filter, error correction should be kept to a minimum in the classroom and should never occur in free conversation. Optimal use should be made of the target language. This input must be comprehensible, interesting, and not grammatically sequenced. Whole-language classrooms share the same concern of creating a community of learners who are comfortable and pave the way for sharing, active learning, and risk-taking.

Omaggio-Hadley's (1986) fifth hypothesis promotes cultural understanding and emphasizes that students be prepared to "live more harmoniously in the target-language community" (p. 53). Both whole-language and proficiency-oriented instruction emphasize active, interactive, learner-centered learning that requires students to work collaboratively to solve problems, complete projects, and complete a task. Through the use of strategies such as cooperative learning, group work, and pair work, students learn to work together, a process resulting in interdependence. As students share their ideas and work, an appreciation for the other individuals will evolve. By making use of all skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) all learning styles will be addressed, and the individual student will have equal access to capitalize on his or her strengths. The teacher becomes a learner

with the students as curriculum decisions are made jointly. Students have options from which to choose in order to complete their work, and as a result accept the responsibility for the learning. The classrooms have a real-world connection, and students are exposed to real language samples that are relevant to them and functional in nature.

Assessment

Much as in the whole-language classroom, the proficiency- oriented classroom must make use of holistic evaluation processes. A holistic approach is based on the premise that language is used for communication purposes first, and only when it is well internalized should it be analyzed (Froese 1991: 287). Foreign languages today are often taught in an "immersion" setting because it has proven more effective in language acquisition and learning. Since much of whole-language and proficiency-oriented instruction is student-centered in nature, students should be allowed to select not only their choices of reading materials, but also the methods of assessment to be used. Process-oriented as well as product-oriented assessment must be considered in the evaluation process. How students develop ideas, organize them, and revise them can give greater insight into gains made in learning than a single end product. This also lends greater insight into the individual student and the progress made. This diagnostic assessment personalizes the instruction and allows for a gathering of materials over a period of time. This longitudinal gathering of documents, writings, and products is often referred to as a portfolio assessment (Valencia et al. 1989; Jongsma 1989).

Omaggio-Hadley and many whole-language specialists promote classroom applications of assessment according to all four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking as a whole (Froese 1991: 291; Omaggio-Hadley 1986: 316). A variety of holistic assessment techniques that represent real communication situations are offered by Froese (1991). Many of these can be incorporated into the foreign language classroom.

One of the most applicable of these techniques is the Wilkinson Framework. Wilkinson (1974) devised a framework for analyzing almost any listening situation. Six questions are asked: "Who communicates what to whom, how and why, and on what occasion?" This task requires students to draw on personal experience, to deduce the reason for the conversation, and to guess where it is taking place. The task requires authentic communication in the form of television and radio advertisements, recorded speeches, live sportscasts, recordings of debates that groups of students listen to and then discuss. They then have to analyze and answer the questions posed above: who, what, to whom, why, what occasion, and how? (Froese 1991: 293–94). Omaggio-Hadley (1986) notes a similar activity in which students listen to authentic messages on a telephone answering machine and must record in the native language who called, when, why, and a summary of the message (p. 141).

Testing only for accuracy when function and content have been the focus of the classroom is invalid. Instead of grammar-driven tests, exams must be contextualized to encourage students to derive meaning from the available cues, a skill

that goes beyond the walls of the foreign language classroom. Test items should be embedded in discourse-length formats to resemble natural language, not in fill-in-the-blank format. Hosenfeld (1976) revealed in her research that students do not even have to process meaning of individual sentences on these fill-in-the-blank, multiple-guess exams and often "short-circuit" grammatical exercises of this type without processing language for some authentic purpose. One of the greatest classroom discrepancies that exist in the foreign language classroom often occurs between the course goals, usually stated in proficiency terms, and the grammar tests that are utilized to measure student achievement (Omaggio-Hadley 1986: 310). If the tests are still grammar-oriented in nature, the effects of curricular innovations are quickly counteracted and the proficiency goals explicitly stated in the course goals are invalidated. Bartz (1976) has pointed out the need to design tests that assess students' ability to communicate authentic meaning.

Since much of the work in both the whole-language and proficiency-oriented classroom encourages independence in learning and self-selection, students should be involved in the assessment process and be held accountable for self-assessment. This can be done in individual conferences or through peer evaluation in which students provide feedback to assist in minimizing errors. Likewise, journal writing, writing folders, student self-evaluations, and cloze tests are all holistic assessment techniques that more appropriately measure the goals and progress achieved by the learners than standardized exams based on a predetermined curriculum.

Implications for the Foreign Language Classroom

The overlapping of philosophical underpinnings and theory of language acquisition as viewed by the whole-language advocates and proficiency-oriented theorists recommend a much deeper and more profound look by foreign language educators at the whole-language movement and classroom. Learning approaches and language theories support the whole-language approach. There is enough existing research that has been conducted to lend valuable insights into second language instruction (Froese 1991: 314–42). Volumes of successful strategies and techniques have been published that can be easily adapted for the second language classroom.

By building on the solid theoretical foundation and numerous practical applications provided by this approach to literacy instruction, second language educators can augment their classroom teaching practices to advance active and interactive student-centered instruction. Much can be learned from research and practice in the field of whole-language learning and teaching that is applicable and directly transferable to the foreign language classroom.

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5
An Introduction to Foreign Language Multimedia:
The Ten Most Frequently Asked Questions

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Singing the multimedia blues? Your mama never told you about multimedia, hypermedia, platforms, local area networks, interactive video, CD-ROM, CD-I, digitized audio, video overlay, video capture, compression, or DVI? Yet times have changed. You finally have the money for new language lab equipment and you are expected to add these new pieces to your repertoire so that your lab will be in tune with modern technology. Or you sense a need to offer your students more motivating and productive work outside the classroom.

If you feel more intimidated than inspired by this challenging prospect, you are not alone. Nevertheless, it is possible to make informed decisions about multimedia technology, given some basic information and a realistic assessment of your own goals and resources. In these pages, assistance is offered to help you make these decisions by answering ten of the most frequently asked questions about multimedia. As you will discover, a number of the "answers" include other questions, which only you can answer as you work toward your decisions.

Question 1:
What Do You Mean by Multimedia?

When applied to a computer workstation, the term *multimedia* means that the computer with its peripheral hardware has the capacity to store and deliver a whole range of print, visual, and auditory media. Familiar mass media—printed texts, graphic images (such as charts, maps, and drawings), motion video, photographic stills, and audio recordings—have all been translated into computer-accessible

formats. Consequently, the user of a multimedia workstation can expect to be able to read or write printed material, look at or draw graphic illustrations, watch movies or slides, and listen to or record sounds such as speech and music all in the same integrated computer configuration.

Much confusion arises when *medium* becomes confused with *format*. We must distinguish the *media* that comprise the sensory inputs that we as humans typically interpret from the *media* constituted by the ever-changing storage formats and devices associated with computers. Whether a system qualifies as a multimedia workstation does not depend on the inclusion of a videodisc player, a massive hard disk drive, or a CD-ROM drive, although certainly these are common elements in current multimedia computers. (See Question 4.) The storage devices we are using today will most certainly evolve to store amounts of information we can barely imagine now; and the processors and strategies used to access this information will change dramatically as well. We are as ill-equipped to imagine the technical future of computing hardware as our great-great-grandparents were to imagine the Concorde.

Further confusion has been contributed by the popular designation *hypermedia*. This term usually refers to a computer-based information-retrieval strategy that enables users to access in-depth information about a subject. The information provided takes a variety of forms as appropriate, including audio, video, and graphic illustrations as well as text. For example, an entry on Martin Luther King might provide a brief biographical sketch with access to a photo of King, a recording of his "I Have a Dream" speech, some news footage of a civil rights march, and links to other documents (textual, visual, and audio) on the African-American civil rights movement of the 1960s in the United States, other civil rights leaders of the period, and the status of civil rights for African-Americans today. In other words, hypermedia is one approach to organizing information in multimedia format.

Question 2:
What Does Multimedia Have to Do with Foreign Languages?

We would like to answer this question in the broadest sense, leaving aspects of specific approaches for the next answer. In a nutshell, multimedia can become the ideal vehicle for conveying language skills to the learner. This applies both to the individual learner and to the learner in a classroom setting. Older technologies have each had their strengths, but have also suffered from persistent weaknesses resulting mainly from the difficulty of individualizing work with linear media such as tapes.

Take the workbook as an example. A commonplace about many forms of instructional computing is that they are merely electronic workbooks. In fact, traditional printed workbooks (including those that accompany audiotapes and videotapes) have always had serious drawbacks as a vehicle for language acquisition. They required too much teacher time to correct, or they had to give away the answers in the back. They were one-dimensional, in that they dragged all students down the same learning path without reference to the individual's strengths and weaknesses. It has always been hard to feel *involved* with a workbook.

Computers and multimedia will make workbooks what they always should have been: adaptable environments for exploration of language, especially in areas where creative expression is not required.

The greatest benefit of multimedia will be felt in the areas of listening comprehension, reading comprehension, acquisition of cultural content, and limited forms of structural practice. These general benefits are possible no matter what underlying theory of language acquisition or what methodology is espoused by your language program.

How will multimedia do this? By adding vital new dimensions to the realm of language practice, multimedia will add sound playback of native speakers, audio recording of the learner's voice, graphics and animation, and video of realistic situations and authentic language usage. Moreover, the learner's path through these new dimensions will be optimized by means of both learner and computer control over the learning path, so that both motivation and efficiency are enhanced. Typical multimedia courseware allows sophisticated forms of audio and video playback, convenient navigation through complex databases of materials (including comprehension aids), and motivating learning tasks with helpful response-judging.

The very complexity of language instruction makes this development necessary and unavoidable. The more language teachers hope to incorporate natural language usage, sophisticated reading and listening skills, and diverse cultural content into their courses, the more they will require resources to supplement the student's exposure to the language. But the technology will not replace the teacher. In the end, the instructor will become the facilitator of a wide range of activities—some person-to-person, some person-to-machine—that comprise the student's language-learning experience.

But let's be realistic. The era of fully multimedia-based curricula has not yet arrived. It will require many years of hard work by technology and methodology experts to achieve such goals. So far, no major textbook publishers have offered comprehensive language programs that exploit the benefits of multimedia. Audiotapes predominate on the lab scene; video-based textbooks have begun to arrive; supplementary computer software is often available; one or two publishers are contemplating the big leap to videodisc; but no print publisher has made a major commitment to multimedia. A few software houses are now bringing experimental packages onto the market. (See Question 6.) Meanwhile, what we can point to in the course of this article are demonstrations of the potential in the hopes of involving the best language teachers in the production of good materials.

Question 3: How Does the Use of Multimedia Relate to the Approaches and Goals of My Curriculum?

Just imagine! Next fall, the publisher of your current and beloved textbook will be coming out with a comprehensive multimedia package available at no cost to adopters whose students purchase fifty or more copies of the textbook per year. Now all you need are a few machines. (See Question 4.) Wouldn't that be nice? Even if this wonderful state were ever reached, however, you would probably see a few

flies in the ointment. Most language instructors find their textbook itself somewhat of a compromise with an ideal. It may have good grammar explanations but poor reading selections, which have to be supplemented. Or it may put too much stress on writing while your program stresses listening. When multimedia finally arrives, it will be like your textbook in this regard: You will like some aspects of it and you will be disappointed with others.

So the good news may be that for the foreseeable future, your use of multimedia will involve careful selection from a small range of materials and methods that correspond to your own goals. In a recent article, Pusack and Otto (1991) set forth the relationship of instructional technologies to various familiar approaches to language instruction—Rivers's interactive language teaching, Omaggio-Hadley's proficiency-oriented instruction, Terrell's Natural Approach, and several less conventional methodologies described by Stevick (Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and the Silent Way). Multimedia, as the quintessentially adaptable medium, can deliver appropriate forms of interaction within any teaching methodology. To see this in detail, let's look at the various language skills one by one, keeping in mind that multimedia tends to blur the distinction between the various skill areas because of its wide range of materials and interactions.

Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension may be the area that leaps further ahead than any other in the curriculum thanks to multimedia. In the past, audiotapes and videotapes not only offered imperfect or slow access to recorded materials, but had to rely on workbooks to guide the learner through a linear set of exercises. The inherently low level of interaction with a printed workbook also restricts the range of listening materials to which students can be exposed. Multimedia explodes these constraints.

The advances to be gained in listening via multimedia derive directly from the quality of the video and audio materials used. At lower levels of language instruction, specially prepared recordings will probably prove unavoidable as a starting place for building comprehension skills. Very early in the curriculum, however, authentic materials (that is, those originally destined for use by native speakers) can play a significant role once multimedia delivery is provided. The advantage of authentic video documents, for example, lies in their inherent credibility, their realistic context, natural use of language, and their mutually reinforcing channels of information. This rich environment for comprehension has a flip side, however, in that authentic texts often have vocabulary and structures not geared to the curriculum, rely on cultural knowledge not possessed by most students, and bombard low-level listeners with too much information for comfortable language acquisition.

These drawbacks can all be overcome by employing well-designed multimedia. By manipulating playback at the phrase or sentence level, courseware can give the learner a sense of control without resorting to simplification of the text. The compound capabilities of text, video, and audio in multimedia mean that what would otherwise present a difficult listening task becomes engaging and accessible.

Thus it becomes possible to expose the student to massive doses of comprehensible input, as suggested by the Natural Approach. Further aids to comprehension are provided by the use of alternate soundtracks for more carefully enunciated speech, for paraphrases, or for alternate texts. These can take the form of alternate soundtracks recorded on videodisc or digitized sound stored on a computer's hard disk or CD-ROM. Image sequences from well-selected video documents reinforce the meaning of the audio track. Paraphrases or contextualized glossaries allow learners to look up selected expressions efficiently without the pitfalls associated with wearisome leafing through printed dictionaries.

Beyond providing tools that make listening more productive, multimedia can set up tasks and situations to build specific listening skills systematically. Such tasks do much of what a good video-based classroom lesson does: focus attention through previewing activities and other advance organizers; simplify the listening task so that the learner is not daunted by unfamiliar materials; and follow up on the listening experience by expanding the learner's domain of activity to narrating personal experiences or expressing opinions orally or in writing. In this end stage, multimedia will play the role of stimulating individual and small-group activity, often away from the workstation.

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension will benefit from multimedia in ways that are largely parallel to listening comprehension. Although many benefits can eventually derive from high-quality text-based software that builds the various subskills of reading comprehension, what is often missing in reading is the concretization of reading content. Language learners often read as if the target reality had no link to their own experience. For many novice readers, foreign trees do not have implied leaves and target-culture picnics do not have implied ants. By adding sound, graphics, animation, and video, it is possible to activate mental contexts for reading in such a way that structures and new vocabulary are acquired in ways analogous to native language learning, rather than relying on the distractions of glossing difficult target-language expressions in the native language. CD-ROM also makes it possible to have extremely large databases of reading matter available at the learner's fingertips, thus allowing curricula that adapt to learners' personal interests. Methodologies that stress careful development of reading skills can thus benefit enormously from the potential of multimedia.

Culture

With the extensive use of authentic print, video, and audio documents comes enhanced access to cultural content. Particularly for teenage and adult learners, we can expect that multimedia courseware will allow instructors to convey significant amounts of cultural knowledge and cross-cultural understanding using the target language. Until the advent of devices that could make worthwhile content accessible and comprehensible in the target language, instructors were caught on the

horns of a dilemma: remain in the target language and trivialize cultural knowledge, or resort to the native language in order to confront sophisticated content.

The receptive skills thus lay claim to significant benefits from multimedia. The productive skills, however, continue to play second fiddle because computers cannot actually understand anything. This means that one of the main advantages of computer-controlled media—the computer's ability to react to student input—is largely denied for the productive skills. Research projects are underway to overcome these limitations, but results are still beyond the horizon. Some progress can be expected in two areas: (1) pedagogical essay processors that can at least flag ungrammatical sentences, and (2) simulations that accept limited one-sentence input and react to it appropriately. The latter are most likely to benefit from the realism that multimedia can provide through video- or animation-based illustrations of the learner's experience in the target culture. Such simulations often suffer from the lack of authenticity, since they are almost always designed for language learners.

Writing

Turning to what is possible for the productive skills, the most progress has been made in the area of writing. At the novice and intermediate level, typical workbook exercises demanding predictable short answers up to one sentence in length can be analyzed by parsers, pattern markup, or error anticipation. This means that structural practice, listening, reading, vocabulary, and cultural content can all require typed student input, which is often preferable to multiple-choice and other selection-based kinds of responses. Beyond the sentence level, reference tools such as *Système-D* for French[1] and *Salsa* for Spanish[2] can provide the writer with a wealth of lexical, syntactic, and semantic information at the click of a mouse. Other writing software engages the student in brainstorming and prewriting activities or structured writing experiences. Finally, content databases allow the student a streamlined form of research that contributes productively to target-language writing. All these writing modes can benefit greatly from multimedia. Video, audio, images, and text in this environment contribute to a massive database at the student's fingertips. The challenge to the instructor (and the software) is to structure the writing experience so that learners progress in their writing skills, rather than meandering about looking for a focus.

Speaking

Finally, multimedia can be a mechanism for building the speaking skill. Digitized audio clearly has the potential to replace audiotape in tutoring and practicing pronunciation. Pronunciation tutors such as those from Hyperglot[3] already demonstrate this potential. More elaborate equipment is needed if student input (phonemes, words, sentence intonation) is to be analyzed by computer. This form of multimedia is on the horizon but still not widely available. Even at the sentence level, analysis of voice input lags far behind analysis of written input; the

same constraints on understanding apply. Multimedia is more likely to play a role in the near future as a source of stimulating content for students' target-language production, either in small groups or in the classroom. The engaging situations set up by simulations and plot-based video sequences, for example, can effectively set the stage for debates, role-plays, and monologues.

Question 4: What Hardware Should I Buy if I Want to Get into Multimedia and How Much Will It Cost?

This is one of the first questions that come to mind and one that most people tend to agonize about for too long. Trying to make decisions about rapidly changing multimedia hardware can be frustrating and confusing; but if you are waiting in the hope that this technology will stabilize, you may well wait forever. Whether you prefer apples or blueberries, you can make a pie with either; and, in general, the same is true of the equipment needed for multimedia computing. We must recognize that at this point we really are more engaged in developing and testing multimedia interactions and strategies than we are in determining the ideal workstation.

Two computer platforms (translation: types of computer) currently dominate the educational market: Apple's Macintosh and IBM's PS/2 (and their "clones" or imitators). Even at this level, costs will depend greatly on which models you choose. To make a basic computer into a multimedia machine as defined above, the hardware must be able to manage text, graphics, motion and still video, and audio recording and playback. The first two media are easily handled by most models of the major manufacturers without additional peripherals. The performance of a basic machine will be determined by the speed of the microprocessor that controls the computer (usually expressed in megahertz), the size of the RAM (random access memory, described in megabytes), and the hard disk drive (also described in megabytes). Price often dictates your limits for these features, but people tend to underestimate their needs for RAM and for hard drive storage. While you may not want to be too concerned with processor speed, you must buy enough memory to (1) handle efficiently the software required for system operation and for routine applications you use and (2) store the software and data required for your multimedia applications. Accepted minimum configurations have at least 4 to 6 megabytes of RAM and a hard drive with no less than 120 megabytes of storage capacity. Because of the limitations of interactive digital video and the inability to network videodiscs and CDs, multimedia computing as a network-based activity is not addressed in this article.

Upgrading a standard computer into a multimedia workstation requires a variety of peripheral devices—internal computer boards and external boxes—to handle video and audio. There are too many of these devices to list and describe all the possible permutations in detail. At present, however, the common elements of a multimedia workstation generically described include (1) a computer with hard drive and a high-resolution monitor, (2) a videodisc player, (3) a CD-ROM drive, (4) an audio digitizing device with microphone and line inputs, (5) a motion

video display device (either a video overlay board for the computer or a separate video monitor), and (6) a speaker or headphones and mixer for audio output.

Audio

In the multimedia environment, audio may be stored in either digital (numeric) or analog (physically represented) form. The audio on a record, tape, or videodisc is analog, while the audio on a compact disk is digital. Computers equipped with a videodisc player or a CD player can easily play back the audio from either of those sources to a speaker or headset. Sound may also be stored in digital form on a computer hard drive and played back without having to rely on the original source of the audio. All Macintosh computers can handle playback of digital audio stored on computer disk without any additional peripheral devices; IBMs and clones require an extra board for this. When a computer records and stores audio, the sounds are digitized (converted into numeric information) for storage. IBMs and some earlier-generation Macintoshes require extra hardware for recording (digitizing) sound—either a sound-digitizing box or internal computer board with inputs for a microphone or other sound source.

While digitization and playback of high-quality audio poses no difficulties for either workstation or network hardware, the quantity of disk space required for storage of high-quality digitized audio is still problematic. Despite computer software that can compress audio information to optimize storage space, seconds of good-quality digitized audio can translate into multiple kilobytes of storage space on your hard drive; just a few minutes of audio will easily fill up a diskette. At the rate that storage technology has evolved and capacity has been increasing, however, digitized audio will be much more practical in the near future.

Video

Interactive video is most commonly implemented as computer-controlled videodisc, and videodisc technology is still very much a part of the multimedia workstation. Interactive videotape systems exist but have not been widely accepted because of the speed and flexibility restrictions of the linear cassette medium. Motion video on CD and on hard drives looms large on the horizon, but digitization and compression of full-motion video is still a cutting-edge phenomenon, which we are not likely to see in full-scale educational use for some time.

Interactive videodisc activities can be carried out with a two-screen or single-screen equipment configuration. With the two-screen interactive video configuration, the computer output is displayed on the computer monitor and the videodisc output is displayed on a separate TV monitor placed next to the computer. This is the most economical solution for interactive videodisc, because the only additional hardware needed is a cable to connect the computer and the disc player. Increasingly, however, the term *multimedia* is coming to mean a single-screen approach to delivering the video component of multimedia.

A single-screen interactive system demands a special video overlay board that converts television video so that it can be displayed on the monitor with the computer output. On the IBM side, a variety of video overlay boards are available that merge full-motion video (at 30 frames per second) and computer output on a high-resolution color monitor. The size of the video window ranges from full-screen to postage-stamp size. Since these boards digitize the video as it plays, the video source (e.g., the videodisc) must always be attached to the workstation while viewing. The price of the best of these boards is $1200–$1350, but these prices are expected to drop in the near future. As with other new and complex technologies, standardization is a problem, and software to drive the boards is specific to each one. Boards that capture high-resolution still images onto disk is also available. Although such boards can digitize and store images that can be displayed later without the board or the original video source in the delivery workstation, they do not capture motion video.

On the Macintosh side, despite the availability of video overlay boards like those used for IBMs, the currently predominant single-screen video presentation mechanism is QuickTime video, which also requires a special video capture board to capture (digitize) the video image (both still and motion) and save it to a file. This strategy does not require the original video capture board or video source for student playback. The prices of these boards are presently comparable to those for the IBM platform and prices are expected to go down. The Mac's processing speed and the capture rates needed to handle high-quality video signals, however, translate into a very small image and necessarily slower frame rates that produce choppy, degraded motion that can be out of synch with the audio. (The exception here is the Quadra, which can play back video at 30 frames per second.) This image size and playback quality are generally not pedagogically acceptable for typical foreign language applications. The other major disadvantage to QuickTime and other forms of digital video lies in the amount of storage required for motion video; even with compression of information, seconds of motion video yield megabytes of data. While it seems undeniable that digital video represents the future of interactive video in the multimedia environment, we must rely for the near term on the videodisc resources at our disposal now.

Development vs. Delivery Machines

Multimedia developers do not necessarily need a more powerful workstation than that used for delivery of multimedia lessons to students. A higher-level workstation is essential only if the developer requires specialized hardware to capture information that can be stored on disk and displayed later at a station that doesn't require that hardware. Nevertheless, faster processing speeds, more memory, and large hard drives can improve the productivity of authors and accommodate complex authoring environments more effectively and comfortably. The student multimedia workstation must minimally have the capacity to support multimedia interaction plus recordkeeping or research data storage.

Lab vs. Classroom Machines

As a rule of thumb, any technology available to your students for independent study in the language laboratory should also be readily available to language teachers to enhance classroom presentation. Multimedia presentation equipment can provide effective illustrations for lectures and explanations as well as engaging and varied stimuli for class conversation and large- and small-group activities. Equipping classrooms with multimedia technology should go hand in hand with updating your labs to include multimedia. Specialized projectors or overhead display panels are required to display computer-based motion video adequately in the classroom.

Critical Factors

Two factors can influence your deliberations about hardware. First, what kind of computers does your campus now support? The kind of computer that is already available on campus is likely to be the one with the best purchase prices, the best maintenance support, and the best resources and support for product development. Of course, this question becomes moot if your campus is populated by both Macs and IBMs.

The second factor for consideration is what multimedia software materials and authoring tools are available that you would like to use. (See Questions 6 and 7.) Since the number of multimedia packages is so limited, you should probably focus on the flexibility and appropriateness of the available authoring tools instead of what you might buy off the shelf. If you plan to depend solely on purchased materials, one (or some) of each platform is a route you should consider.

The bottom line will be cost. How much money you have to spend will limit what you get. Fulfilling your multimedia requirements is more important than filling the room with machines. If you have a solid base on which to demonstrate your success with multimedia, your case for acquiring additional workstations will be much stronger.

Question 5: What Is the Relationship of Multimedia to Other Language Laboratory Media?

Some consultants advise institutions to completely abandon "old" language lab technologies in favor of multimedia computer workstations. This is not particularly *bad* advice if the language faculty does not use any of the "old" technology anyway; but it probably isn't particularly good advice either, since these instructors will probably not be any more inclined to use the new technology. The technology that resides in any language lab should be intimately linked to how the faculty wants to use technology in the curriculum—both in the classroom and in the language laboratory. Each of the traditional technologies—books, audiotape, videotape, slides, "plain" computers—have proven effectiveness or efficiencies in the

framework of language instruction. Factors of cost, accessibility, productivity, and acceptance are all compelling reasons to continue considering the positive benefits these media can contribute to foreign language learning. Over the years we have explored their potential, adjusted our expectations of their usefulness, and developed methods and materials to exploit them intelligently. We are right in being excited about new multimedia technology; its potential benefits seem so enticingly obvious. But we must temper our enthusiasm with caution and common sense, working to develop a mature vision of the role of multimedia in the curriculum and elaborating a plan to move gradually toward its best implementation in the classroom and the laboratory.

Question 6:
What Multimedia Materials Are Currently Available?

Just as multimedia hardware is still very much in a development phase, so is the software. Few excellent examples of foreign language multimedia are currently available for purchase. This is not really very surprising, however, because videodiscs suitable for foreign language instruction have been scarce since the introduction of the videodisc medium in education. In the past several years the number of foreign language discs and software produced by special projects and by publishers has increased dramatically and their availability will encourage interactive video and multimedia to develop and mature.

Two of the best examples of foreign language interactive media are *A la Rencontre de Phillippe*, a French language simulation centering on a young man's search for an apartment in Paris, and *Perseus*, a comprehensive system of resources for studies on ancient Greece. Although the *Phillippe* two-screen simulation is probably more precisely categorized as interactive videodisc than as multimedia, the program stands as a model of excellence in computer-based learning because of its imaginative design, flexibility, and engaging, highly interactive format that draws students into French language and culture. *Perseus* is a multimedia library of resources for Greek literature, art, archaeology, architecture, language, and history. Working from a vast archive of materials on CD-ROM, videodisc, and computer, *Perseus* offers users access to hypertext print materials (literary texts, translations, articles, etc.), motion video, still images, and graphic illustrations.[4]

ELLIS (English Language Learning and Instruction System), a multimedia environment for learners of English as a second language, provides practice in conversation, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary through motion and still video resources, animations, and digital audio. Videodisc- and CD-based materials complement the computer software.[5]

Major projects to develop interactive foreign language materials have occasionally grown out of collaborations between university professors and large corporations. Such is the case with the *Interactive Japanese: Understanding Spoken Japanese* package, produced with support from the Nippon Television Network and from Fujitsu Ltd.[6]

A few publishers have begun to publish materials on videodisc; and in some cases, software that accompanies them is available. Britannica is an example of such

a publisher, with its *Diez temas interactivos*; the accompanying software from Dynacom utilizes the *Diez temas* videodiscs and adds interactions with digitized audio capabilities.[7]

Computer corporations have recognized the educational potential for interactive media and have begun to invest in development projects as well. Among current multimedia software initiatives is the IBM-sponsored LLAMA (Language Learning and Multimedia Applications) Consortium, which comprises seven universities in the Unites States and Canada that are developing foreign language multimedia programs for the IBM platform. The materials under development address a wide range of skills—reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, and culture—featuring primarily interactive video and digital audio. Packages under development include *German Language and Culture* (16 culturally authentic situations; from Brigham Young University); *Montevidisco* (new, revised version of a well-known Spanish interactive simulation; Brigham Young University); *DIAS* (Digital Interactive Audio System for dictation and oral practice; Smith College); *Vi-conte* (interactive materials with an archive of slides, illustrations, and explanations to teach French-Canadian culture; University of Calgary); *Sur la bonne voix* (dramatic presentations of Proust and Flaubert; University of Chicago); *Fête français* and the *German Newsroom* (multimedia simulations in which students plan a French party or work in a German newsroom researching and writing articles; University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign); *Cinema* (listening comprehension and cultural annotation system for videodisc-based films and documentaries; University of Pennsylvania); and *Dasher, Plot Puzzle*, and *Listening Tool* (tools and tasks for listening comprehension and structural practice in German, French, and Spanish; University of Iowa).[8]

Question 7: Are There Ways for Me to Create My Own Multimedia Materials?

Yes, and as the answer to Question 3 indicates, you will probably need to consider this option seriously if you want materials that mesh well with your own curriculum. You may want to consider developing (1) your own lessons based on existing multimedia documents, such as videodiscs, and (2) your own multimedia documents, such as digitized audio recordings. Your computer platform (IBM-compatible or Macintosh) will determine your options for lesson development. The amount of time you want to spend on the project will also determine how extensively you want to become involved in lesson development.

Authoring

Assuming you are not a computer programmer, you should look at a wide range of authoring tools that can interact with multimedia and continue to monitor developments in this area. Publishers of foreign language authoring systems and templates are eager to promote the fact that their packages support various media,

so this information is easy to come by. In the case of foreign language authoring systems, the more difficult question is how powerful and easy to use the supported interactions are. A simple template that supports interactive video or video overlay may be a good place to start, but you should expect to exhaust the capabilities of any template that allows you to insert new information into existing formats.

The alternative to specialized foreign language authoring systems and templates is a general-purpose authoring environment. Most sophisticated authoring systems now offer a combination of prestructured interactions (item types) and the capability to write or "script" unique new kinds of activities. Learning how to do this takes some time and some help, but including multimedia does not make the task very much more difficult. In fact, including good multimedia documents can prove so intrinsically motivating and effective that the need for complex interactions is reduced.

Unfortunately, not every authoring package supports every device on the market. A given package may work with one make or model of videodisc player but not with another. One authoring system may support certain video overlay boards on certain IBMs or IBM clones but not others. In general, two-screen workstations may be easier to support than one-screen systems, but they may not have as many of the capabilities you need. While new devices come on the market all the time, it may take several years before a new device is supported by a given authoring system. Efforts to standardize device interfaces should mean that these problems will become less critical.

If you want to obtain courseware from others or share your work with other institutions, you should steer clear of idiosyncratic hardware configurations. If you already have computer systems for language learners installed, you may have to work outward from your hardware in deciding how to develop your own materials. If you have not yet purchased hardware, finding a platform that has a good combination of existing off-the-shelf courseware, templates, and authoring systems may be the best approach.

Well-established foreign language packages include *Maclang* (Macintosh),[9] *CALIS* (IBM DOS and Windows)[10] and *Dasher* (Macintosh, DOS, and Windows).[11] Macintosh authoring systems include *Hypercard*[12] and *Authorware*.[13] IBM authoring systems include *Toolbook*,[14] *Icon-Author*,[15] *Authorware*, *TenCore*,[16] *Quest*,[17] and *Plus*.[18] Some systems allow conversion of programs from one platform to the other. Many authoring systems will allow a professional programmer to add features to the program; this capability is desirable, for example, if you plan to include more than multiple-choice response judging in your programs. On the IBM side, it is essential to consider whether you want to use Windows as a graphical user interface. Authoring packages also differ in the conditions under which you are implicitly granted the right to distribute lessons based on their programming.

Media

In addition to developing your own courseware, you may want to consider developing your own recorded media—audio, images, and video—subject to relevant copyright concerns. The least expensive medium to add is digitized audio,

using built-in or inexpensive hardware. (See Question 4.) At a slightly higher price it is possible to digitize video images. Once satisfactory digital video is available, you will also be able to record motion video sequences, but in the short term, videodiscs are still an essential source of good-quality video for language instruction. Unfortunately, creating a half-hour videodisc must generally be undertaken at a professional mastering facility. A single copy can cost $300; a replicable master costs about $1800 plus about $20 per copy. These are the costs once you have a high-quality video master derived from your own recording sessions or licensed from a source such as a foreign TV network. For this reason, most startup projects are based on available videodiscs from publishers and distributors such as Voyager,[19] Ztek,[20] Films, Inc.,[21] Sight & Sound,[22] and PICS.[23]

Question 8: How Do I Get Started?

Start by working with a single combination of course and platform and product that meets a real curricular need. Multimedia projects can become boundless as one tries to find the ideal hardware, the most appropriate video materials, the most impressive software, and so forth. Developing new materials can become a full-fledged effort comparable to a major research project; even implementing new materials across a full-semester course can be difficult and produce surprises. For this reason, it is best to start small by acquiring a multimedia package that can serve as an experimental unit in a course you teach or supervise.

To do even this, of course, requires some resources to purchase a workstation and materials. Temporarily borrowing a workstation from another department or a vendor to demonstrate the potential of an innovation to colleagues and deans may be the simplest approach. Once administrators can be brought to utter the sentence "I wish I had learned languages that way," some level of funding for equipment should not be far behind. The key to success is finding demonstrably good courseware.

Building your knowledge of developments in this field takes time, since printed descriptions seldom convey the most valuable aspects, and specialized hardware is often needed to run demonstration packages. Rather than "bungee jumping" into multimedia by deciding to become an expert overnight, take every opportunity at professional meetings to attend technology sessions and systematically keep up with commercial products in vendors' booths. Enlist the collaboration of colleagues from other language departments in these efforts so that you can make common cause in applying for equipment that can benefit various groups of students. If it is difficult to attend conferences or to demonstrate materials to your department, try to obtain videotaped demonstrations of various multimedia products.

Once a certain level of interest has been reached, a few additional steps may prove helpful. First, consider attending a specialized conference or workshop dealing with multimedia. Examples are CALICO (Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Instruction Consortium),[24] IALL (International Association for Learning Laboratories),[25] regional IALL meetings, or various workshops that are held from time to time on college campuses. CALICO and IALL publish journals that

can be helpful in this specialized area. CALICO also has a special-interest group that publishes the *CALICO Interactive Video SIG Newsletter*;[26] another good source of updates on foreign language computing is the *Athelstan Newsletter*.[27] Visit other campuses within driving distance that have already explored or implemented multimedia, but do not expect that they will automatically welcome the chance to do a free workshop on your behalf. Consider asking your administration to sponsor a workshop on your campus, perhaps in collaboration with another institution in the region. All these steps are essential if your decisions about possible directions are to be informed ones.

Be ready to compromise at the start in order to get going. You may not be able to afford your ideal workstation, or you may not be able to use the materials with as many students as you would like, or you may not be totally happy with someone else's materials. Remember that other institutions have different goals, different pedagogies, different kinds of students; keep in mind that campuses that seem to be ahead of you had to struggle for every dollar's worth of hardware and software, too.

Be sure to explore all the resource units at your institution or in your area that may be working with multimedia or that may want to do so. Allies can be found in the library, the audiovisual center, the computer center, and in disciplines as distant as dentistry and engineering. Ask whether your institution or district has an information technology plan and how you can have input to it. Volunteer to serve on committees that decide such matters; often they are grateful to have a token humanities person get involved. All these efforts are needed because multimedia is more complex and more expensive than other aspects of teaching.

Once you have a good idea of your own short-term and long-term goals, writing grant proposals to public and private funding agencies is a good way to focus your efforts. Zeal at grant-writing also calls administrators' attention to your needs and your willingness to work hard to meet them. Many federal grants do not permit large expenditures of funds for equipment, but your institution may be willing to purchase equipment or provide other matching funds if you receive a grant. Whatever the source, innovation in language study is still an eminently fundable area, as evidenced by the many institutions that have received grants for experimental programs or fully renovated language laboratories.

Question 9:
Where's the Research on the Effectiveness of It?

This is a favorite question of deans and other administrators in search of accountability. As a profession, we have frequently relied on observation and subjective reactions for gauging the effectiveness of our methods and tools for language instruction. It should come as no surprise, then, that very little research has ever been conducted on the effectiveness of language learning technology. A review of the literature on the effectiveness of the traditional audio lab reveals only a few inconclusive studies. Likewise, as Pederson (1987) observes, relatively little research has been done in the area of computer-assisted language instruction. Predictably, there has been little comprehensive research on the

effectiveness of interactive video and multimedia computing either. *Interactive Videodisc in Language Learning: The Why and the How* (Bush et al. 1991), a monograph on interactive video published by CALICO, provides the best review of the research that has been done on this topic.

The recent emphasis on educational accountability and outcomes assessment at government levels will perhaps stimulate research by second-language acquisition specialists on the effectiveness of technology. Since we are still at an early stage in the process of developing and implementing multimedia software, we can hardly be faulted for the lack of research evidence in this area. Nevertheless, multimedia software development teams would be well-advised to consult with research specialists who could assist in designing research studies and the data-capture mechanisms that could be built into the software.

Question 10: How Will I Know When the Time Is Right?

The longer you wait in the area of instructional technology, the more exciting the hardware and software will be. In addition, it may become either cheaper or more powerful. This might seem like a good rationale for doing nothing until the year 2010. The counter-argument is that the longer you wait, the more complex everything will become, the harder it will become to develop expertise, and the higher will be the financial hurdles for state-of-the-art systems.

Today, one no longer has to imagine what good multimedia will look like. The manipulation of video, audio, text, and graphics under computer control is fully demonstrable. New generations of hardware will add some power and make some aspects more convenient, but many of these changes will not drive new advances in language-learning pedagogy. In some cases, the benefits of a good piece of courseware for student learning will be so clear that further delay becomes almost irresponsible. Typically, it falls to one or two individuals at each institution to invest the effort to explore the options.

It is certainly time to systematically explore what is possible by attending conferences and workshops and developing a five-year plan for the role of technology at your institution. Whether this plan says that next year will have only drill-and-practice and videotape, followed by more complex hardware several years down the road, may depend more on your ability to commit time and energy than on developments in the field. No matter what you decide, your decisions on whether or how to use multimedia technology must be based on a complex assessment of many factors: funds, space, support infrastructure, hardware and software needs and preferences, and faculty willingness to explore and integrate multimedia into the curriculum. Whether your institution should take bold new steps toward multimedia may thus depend on whether your colleagues and administrators have been fully informed about the possibilities. When they have reached this point, the decision to make a gradual or an abrupt transition to new language-learning technologies will come naturally.

Notes

1. *Système-D* is available from Heinle and Heinle, Marketing Department, 20 Park Plaza, Boston, MA 02116. Contact: Amy Terrell, tel. 617-451-1940.
2. *Salsa* is available from Interlex, 95 Brown Rd., Ithaca, NY 14850. Contact: Donald F. Sola, tel. 607-257-8663.
3. For software demonstrating the potential of digitized audio, contact the Hyperglot Software Company, Inc., 505 Forest Hills Blvd., Knoxville, TN 37919, tel. 800-726-5087.
4. *A la Rencontre de Phillippe* and *Perseus* are available as software for Macintosh only from Yale University Press, 92A Yale Station, New Haven, CT 06520, tel. 203-432-0912.
5. *ELLIS* software for IBM PS/2 with M-Motion and M-Audio boards is available from CALI, Inc., 526 E. Quail Rd., Orem, UT 84057, tel. 801-226-6886.
6. *Interactive Japanese: Understanding Spoken Japanese* is available as software for IBM InfoWindow or PS/2 with M-Motion from Kaigai Office, 12520 High Bluff Dr., #280, San Diego, CA 92131, tel. 619-755-0945.
7. *Diez temas interactivos* discs are available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp., 310 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60604-9839, tel. 800-554-9862. *Diez temas* software for Macintosh only is available from Dynacom, Inc., 1512 N. Fremont Ave., Suite 101, Chicago, IL 60622, tel. 312-951-5510.
8. LLAMA software has been developed for IBM PS/2 with M-Motion, M-Audio, and (optionally) CD-ROM. General information about the LLAMA Consortium can be received by contacting Rebecca Bohde, 262 International Center, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242, tel. 319-335-2317.
9. *Maclang* is available from Intellimation, Dept. 2SCH, P.O. Box 219, Santa Barbara, CA 93116, tel. 800-346-8355.
10. For information about CALIS, contact the Humanities Computing Facility, 104 Languages Bldg., Duke University, Durham, NC 27706, tel. 919-684-3637.
11. The *DASHER Foreign Language Authoring System* is available from CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Oakdale Campus, Iowa City, IA 52242, tel. 800-365-9774; inquire about demonstration diskettes.
12. *Hypercard* is published by the Claris Corp., 5201 Patrick Henry Dr., M/S C-71, Box 58168, Santa Clara, CA 95052-8168, tel. 408-727-8227.
13. *Authorware Professional* (formerly *Best Course of Action*) is published by Authorware, Inc., 275 Shoreline Dr., Suite 535, Redwood City, CA 94065, tel. 415-595-3101; inquire about demonstration disks.
14. *Toolbook* is published by the Assymetrix Corp., 110 110th Ave. NE, Suite 717, Bellevue, WA 98004, tel. 206-637-1500. Regular *Toolbook* workshops, often focusing on the role of multimedia in language instruction, are offered by the Institute for Academic Technology, P.O. Box 12017, Research Triangle Park, NC 27709-2017, tel. 919-560-5031.
15. *Icon-Author* is published by the Aimtech Corp., 77 Northeaster Boul., Nashua, NH 03062, tel. 603-883-0220.
16. *TenCore* is published by the Computer Teaching Corp., 1713 Neil St., Champaign, IL 61820, tel. 217-352-6363.
17. *Quest* is published by Allen Communication, 140 Lakeside Plaza II, 5225 Wiley Post Way, Salt Lake City, UT 84116, tel. 801-537-7800.
18. *Plus* is published by Spinnaker Software, 201 Broadway, Cambridge, MA 02139-1901, tel. 617-494-9148.
19. Voyager's catalog of videodisc-related materials can be obtained from The Voyager Company, 1351 Pacific Coast Hwy., Santa Monica, CA 90401, tel. 213-451-1383.
20. Ztek's catalog of videodisc-related materials can be obtained from the Ztek Company, P.O. Box 1055, Louisville, KY 40201-1055, tel. 800-247-1603.
21. Some foreign language videodiscs are available (usually for a limited time only) from Films, Inc., 5567 N. Ravenswood Ave., Chicago, IL 60640-1199, tel. 800-323-4222.
22. For foreign language feature films on disc, contact Sight & Sound, 27 Jones Rd., Waltham, MA 02154, tel. 617-894-8633.

23. PICS's catalog of videotapes, videodiscs, and software can be obtained from PICS, 262 International Center, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242, tel. 800-373-PICS.
24. The *CALICO Journal* is published four times per year. For membership and subscription information, contact Dr. Frank L. Borchardt, Editor, CALICO, Duke University, 014 Language Center, Durham, NC 27706, tel. 919-681-6455.
25. *The IALL Journal of Language Learning Technologies* is published three times per year. For membership and subscription information, contact Dr. Robin E. Lawrason, IALL Business Manager, Media Learning Center 02-31, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122, tel. 215-787-4758.
26. For subscription information on The *CALICO Interactive Video SIG Newsletter*, contact Michael Bush, Dept. of French and Italian, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602, tel. 802-378-4515.
27. The *Athelstan Newsletter* is edited by Michael Barlow and Suzanne Kemmer and is published by Athelstan Publications, P.O. Box 8025, La Jolla, CA 92038-8025, tel. 619-689-1757.

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6
Try Music!

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What is the common interest of students across the United States? Music! Yet what is perhaps the least employed tool in the methodology of most subjects? Music! Most American students are "tuned in" to music and can remember the melody and words to the latest hit or commercial jingle without trying. The challenge for foreign language educators is to harness this interest in music and thus add a new dimension to activities promoting cultural awareness and proficiency in communication.

This article has a twofold purpose. First, to provide a rationale for the use of music, research that advocates the use of music as a method in teaching will be reviewed. Included will be a historical view of the last twenty-five years and selected popular educational perspectives in the United States today. From this it can be determined how foreign language teaching takes advantage of educational research in the use of music. Second, in focusing on the specific uses of music in the classroom, this article will summarize the ideas in current literature that suggest musical activities for communication skills and cultural enlightenment. In addition, ideas for musical activities will be given that are not usually addressed in the research at this point: (1) activities using music as an aid in the reading process, (2) musical style as a cultural device, and (3) the inclusion of music in literature courses, and a corollary, the introduction of literature through music to beginning students.

Language Methodology, Music, Educational Theories

General research in education can shed light on certain practices that help us understand the learning process and therefore enhance the teaching practice when applied to foreign language classes. These educational trends, like teaching with a global perspective (which presumes cultural diversity), the incorporation of more interdisciplinary activities, and outcome-based assessment, represent goals in the foreign language classroom, also. The value of music is in its three-pronged dimension to achieve these aims: (1) the style of the music, which reflects the culture in which it was produced, (2) the text, which is also a mirror of culture, and (3) activities to enhance communication skills that can be derived from the text.

Foreign language educators have demonstrated that variety in activities is important in teaching, and in the past twenty-five years teachers have witnessed a multitude of methods aimed at making learning easier for students. This eclectic approach has been validated by Harvard University psychologist Howard Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences, an educational philosophy spreading in public and private schools across the United States today.[1] Gardner asserts that all people possess varying degrees of intelligences in the following domains: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, music, bodily-kinesthetic, and personal. Of course, the linguistic and logical-mathematical domains are the core of teaching and evaluating students in most subjects in U.S. schools at the present time.

Although virtually nothing is found in educational research linking the multiple intelligences with the teaching of foreign languages, it is easy to see how various foreign language approaches mesh with Gardner's theory. Obviously, teachers deal with linguistic skills and logical-mathematical reasoning daily. The total physical response approach (Asher) matches the bodily-kinesthetic domain. Visuals (spatial intelligence) and certain realia to stimulate communication skills and promote cultural and historical ideas have been used for years, and is widespread in textbook series. Conversation and role-playing, which have been staples of foreign language methodology, and the more recent thrust of cooperative learning, pertain to the personal intelligence domain. This leaves music as the least explored intelligence and probably the most systematically underutilized.

Gardner's theory challenges educators to broaden their concept of intelligence and learning and to exploit the different intelligences as a means of developing knowledge of different domains. "Various intellectual competences can serve both as means and as message, as form and as content," even though actual material to be mastered falls into only one of the domains (Gardner 1983: 334). This suggests that teachers of any subject could, and perhaps should, develop a range of methods to accommodate the learning styles of individuals with varying degrees of the different intelligences.

Gardner's theory advocates a multisensory, interdisciplinary approach, one that would include music. FLES programs probably make the best use of this philosophy; it often seems to disappear as students move to the secondary and university levels. Though many foreign language teachers have addressed most of these intelligences, music appears to be the one strategy omitted. Gardner's theory elevates the status of music as a method of reaching students who may not respond to traditional teaching styles emphasizing linguistic or logical-mathematical intelligences. Music begs for more attention in foreign language classes, whether elementary, secondary, or university settings, whether beginning or advanced courses, whether literature or culture courses.

Another major focus in U.S. education is the emphasis on interdisciplinary connections and deeper exploration of subject matter. This is perhaps most noted in Theodore Sizer's "Coalition of Essential Schools" (1985, 1991), an organization to which many public and private U.S. secondary schools have subscribed.[2] Music adds this cross-disciplinary angle, and, like art, languages, literature, geography, history, and social studies, becomes a natural link to other subjects in which the foreign language teacher can play a vital role rather than remain in an isolated academic field. In addition to new theories derived from the research, educators

today are constantly admonished to reach beyond basic skills and strive for more critical thinking, using Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom 1956). Music may be the impetus for students to become more involved in their work and promote an interest that will stimulate complex thinking.

Obviously, music can be used as entertainment, sing-alongs, or other performances. Though this may be successful and have value, this assumes that students like to sing and will cooperate. But music is more than entertainment, more than just filler, more than a reward on a Friday for working hard all week. Furthermore, teachers often feel they must have talent in order to include singing or other music activities in their class. Educators need to overcome the belief that only teachers and students with musical talent should participate in music activities and, instead, aim for a systematic method of including music as a nonsinging activity, where no talent is required on the part of the teacher or the student.

Foreign language journals in the past three decades have produced only a handful of articles regarding the use of music in the classroom. Most of them feature the obvious cultural implication of the contemporary song, although some promote specific activities using these songs for communicative proficiency. Little has been written advocating music for the beginning foreign language class, the adult learner, students with special needs, and ESL classes. For all the accessories that textbook publishers include in school series, such as videos, workbooks, tests, conversation cards, and teacher manuals, they usually include very little music. Foreign language teachers are basically on their own to incorporate music activities in the classroom.

Since teachers will be collecting their own individual materials, a good classification system will enable the teacher to pull out the appropriate song when needed and insert it in lesson plans like other realia. Some type of card index file or computer cross-reference system will allow more ease in using music in the classroom. Teachers may wish to categorize music with information similar to that below.

MUSIC FILE

TITLE

COMPOSER AUTHOR

PERFORMER

SUBJECT LEVEL

MUSICAL STYLE

COMMUNICATION SKILL
listening
pronunciation
conversation
reading
writing
vocabulary
grammar

RELATED ACTIVITY
art
drama
game
geography

Perhaps in the future, foreign language publishers will provide more musical materials, and school text series will incorporate music in their activities.

Communication Activities

The following brief summary of communication activities for listening, speaking, reading, and writing has been compiled from personal experience and suggestions from other articles (Abrate 1983, 1988; Brown 1975; Delière and Lafayette 1985; Elliott 1987; Leith 1979). It is by no means comprehensive, as teachers will continue to develop activities to suit their needs, and each song and each situation will generate its own appropriate exercises. Listening comprehension activities might include marking the frequency of words upon hearing the song or crossing out the letters not pronounced in words—activities that even beginners can handle. Students might fill in the missing words in sentences from the song, put a list of words in order as they appear in the song, or incorporate speaking and writing activities by answering questions about the song. Students can be asked to expand the song's story or dramatize it, summarize or describe the theme, in oral or written form. Students can create new lines, focusing on rhyme and rhythm. Grammar points can be emphasized by searching for certain points in songs like negative phrases or direct objects. Vocabulary development can be enhanced by identifying informal and formal language, matching words or songs with synonyms or antonyms, finding gender of new nouns by clues in the song, substituting new words, finding cognates, or circling categories of words, such as foods or colors. Of course, all the above activities could be used with a spoken passage or reading sample. Unlike speech, however, the rhyme, meter, and melody of a song may help gain students' attention and help them remember patterns. In this way, teachers would be using the musical domain of intelligences to teach in the linguistic domain.

Perhaps less is available in the research about the possibilities of using music activities to develop the reading skill. As a teacher in an inner-city high school, this author found that speaking the foreign language was a novelty for students, but they resisted reading the language, probably due to their poor ability to read in their native English language. Astonishingly, students often simply did not recognize written words even though they were familiar with them orally, because they had not mastered sound/symbol relationships. Rivers's research has established that reading is linked with listening, speaking, and improvement in pronunciation and intonation, as well as with grammar, writing, and cultural implications (Rivers 1988). The teacher's role in facilitating the decoding of letter symbols in the reading process is enhanced with music activities. These exercises may aid sound/spelling correspondence, an important task for students who have a difficult time making these connections in their native language and need extra practice to associate sounds with printed symbols. Furthermore, Rivers asserts that students will read if they are interested in the content. Text set to music adds the dimension of musical style that appeals to the senses and emotions and may prove more interesting to students than a reading passage not associated with melody and rhythm. McKenna (1977) suggests that music is inherently pleasant to hear and could be the stimulus that makes reading pleasant, because the close placement of a pleasing

stimulus to a second stimulus will result in some transfer of desire to the second stimulus.

Activities to enhance reading should focus on songs with simple, repetitive lyrics, like "Sag mir, wo die Blumen sind," (a translation of Seeger's "Where Have All the Flowers Gone"), in a version that features a clear vocal line without overwhelming instruments, and at an appropriate tempo:

Sag mir, wo die Blumen sind.
Wo sind sie geblieben?
Sag mir, wo die Blumen sind.
Was ist geschehn?
Sag mir, wo die Blumen sind.
Mädchen pflückten sie geschwind.
Wann wird man je verstehn?
Wann wird man je verstehn? (etc.)

Other songs, like "Das Bärenorchester" (Hoffmann), features a seven-verse text with controlled vocabulary of instruments, numbers, and verbs.[3] Students are aided in the reading because of the appropriate instruments they hear:

Ein kleiner Bär,
der trommelte allein,
kam einer, der Gitarre spielte,
schon war'n sie zu zwein.
Zwei kleine Bären,
die nahmen einen mit,
der blies die Mundharmonika,
da waren sie zu dritt. (etc.)

Besides popular and traditional songs, publishers and individuals have created songs that focus on particular vocabulary and can be extremely useful for isolated skills. Since they are not necessarily authentic music from another culture, they should be approached as a game. Their value is for the struggling student who may find it easier to learn grammar and vocabulary with rhyme, rhythm, and melody. Even college students in beginning levels can benefit from special songs with controlled vocabulary, emphasizing a particular grammar point. The following excerpt from the multiversed example, "Avec mon panier," from *Un Kilo de chansons* (Kay),[4] lends itself to many activities emphasizing food, the verb *avoir*, and stress pronouns; it could be used to develop reading comprehension skills:

Avec mon panier, je vais au marché.
Qu'est-ce que tu as donc dans ton panier?
Moi, j'ai une pomme
Moi, j'ai une pomme. (etc.)

Prereading activities from the above example could include marking the number of times certain words are heard, filling in the missing words from a tape script with blanks, adding new lines or substituting fruits, asking questions using

the *je* and *tu* forms of *avoir*, or changing pronouns and verbs from first person to third person.

An activity capitalizing on the current popularity of rap music can have great value in the foreign language class and again may aid in the reading process. This musical style, often more like a chant than a song, can allow students to create their own meaningful patterns and promote memory of certain vocabulary or grammatical points useful to them. Several publishers have prepared rap-type songs focusing on certain ideas. Students may be much more likely to "sing" these chants aloud because they are limited in melodic range and are more like metered speech. The oral practice will aid in pronunciation and the sound/symbol correspondence needed for reading. For example, the following chant, "Mrs. D. R. Vandertramp," from *Sing, Dance, Laugh, and Eat Quiche 3* (MacArthur) [5] may enable students to remember which French verbs are conjugated with *être* in the *passé composé* and at the same time may provide practice in pronunciation and verb endings:

Mrs. D. R. Vandertramp
Aime bien vous aider.
Les mots sont faciles
Si son nom vous retenez:
Monter—Je suis monté.
Rester—Tu es resté.
Sortir—Il est sorti.
Descendre—Elle est descendue.
Rentrer—Nous sommes rentrés.
Venir—Vous êtes venus.
Arriver—Ils sont arrivés.
Naître—Elles sont nées.
Devenir—Je suis devenu.
Entrer—Tu est entré.
Retourner—Il est retourné.
Tomber—Elle est tombée.
Revenir—Nous sommes revenus.
Aller—Vous êtes allés.
Mourir—Ils sont morts.
Partir—Elles sont parties.

Raps can add a cultural dimension, as well as practice vocabulary or grammar, as does the following excerpt of "Yo soy de España," from *Cantos ritmos y rimas* (Zovi):[6]

Yo soy de España, español soy.
La capital es Madrid. Para allá me voy.
Yo soy de Colombia, colombiano soy.
La capital es Bogotá. Para allá me voy. (etc.)

Raps can easily be designed by the students, with their own creative rhythms, or set to familiar tunes. The following example places present-tense *-ir* verb endings in French to a traditional melody ("When the Saints Go Marching In") to help students memorize what may be a difficult task:

Oh, when the Saints
i - s, i - s (je finis, tu finis)

go marching in
i - t, i - t (il finit, elle finit)

Oh, when the Saints go marching in
i - s, i - s, i - t, i - t

Oh, Lord, I want
i - s - s - ons (nous finissons)

to be in that number
i - s - s - e - z (vous finissez)

When the Saints go marching in
i - s - s - e - n - t, oh yeah! (ils/elles finissent)

Texts as Culture

A 1991 survey of professors of French culture courses revealed that only 30 percent introduced the topic of French song, yet on a student survey it ranked third in a list of desired topics that were never introduced in the courses (Koop 1991), demonstrating an existing interest in music yet a lack of its use. Recent articles give suggestions for cultural topics and lists for French songs appropriate for them, even outlining entire college culture courses centered on a contemporary song repertoire (Abrate 1983, 1988; Hamblin 1987, 1991). Communication activities can continue with these pop songs, as well as with traditional, children's, and patriotic songs, all of which may have texts with cultural implications. Certainly, even teachers in elementary and secondary schools can choose contemporary songs with specific vocabulary, such as "J'ai peur de l'avion," by Francis Cabrel, which could introduce vocabulary on transportation:

Des milliers d'hommes d'affaires, le nez dans le journal,
Rien d'autre à faire, essayer de trouver ça normal,
J'ai pas de costume sombre, j'ai pas de conversation,
Et puis, j'ai peur de l'avion.
Bienvenue dans le piège, une voix de velours,
Qui dit, "sous votre siège la veste de secours"
Faut qu'il y en ait un qui tombe, c'est peut être le bon,
J'ai peur de l'avion. (etc.)

In addition, many songs have universal themes, for example, Patricia Kaas's "Mademoiselle chante les blues" about the role of women, and Michel Rivard's "C'est un Mur" about racism, which can be introduced in beginning classes as authentic materials. Students can hear direct messages about cultures when performers sing about their countries, as in Rivard's "Coeur de ma vie," in which he speaks of being French Canadian.

A song like Rivard's "Schefferville, le dernier train" demonstrates music in a Canadian-flavored country style, with a text on the universal problem of unemployment. Many communication proficiency activities can be practiced with oral or written questions and answers utilizing the text:

Il n'y a plus rien au Roxy
Depuis quelques mois
Y a de la neige dans la porte
Du vieux cinema.
Dans la rue un chien jappe
Et se prend pour un loup
La nuit tombe sur la ville
Qui m'a donné le jour. (etc.)

Musical Style

The style of the music, with or without a text, is a reflection of the culture's rhythms, melodies, form, and instruments. It is perhaps the least utilized dimension of music in the foreign language classroom. Many U.S. styles of rock and roll, country, jazz, and rap influenced other countries, and certainly teachers can find examples of these. Spanish teachers in particular can find many translations of familiar songs. In turn, it is not difficult to find U.S. music influenced by other cultures, for example by the dance rhythms from Latin America. Teachers may be surprised at the amount of music from around the world and the ethnic music available in local music stores or libraries, especially those in universities.

Using authentic music of other countries gives teachers a chance to dispel the stereotype that other cultures simply imitate the United States. Certainly the music of the francophone world, for example, will sound different coming from Algeria, French Polynesia, Senegal, Quebec, or Haiti, with different rhythms, instruments, styles, and forms. The music represents the culture, even if the language is not French, and if French teachers wish to give an accurate portrayal of the other cultures, the music may represent a nonverbal or nonfrancophone aspect. Certainly the foreign language teacher should not forget the music teacher as a resource for musical style. Music series in elementary schools contain examples of music from around the world, with and without texts (some in foreign languages), with explanations of the style and the instruments, and include authentic recordings that could also be used in secondary classes.

Students will undoubtedly have a reaction to the music they hear. Much of the music of the world is non-Western and will sound very different from what U.S. students are used to hearing. Teachers of Asian languages, for example, will find an enormous difference between music from their target language countries and that of the United States. Teachers can use the differences as an opportunity to allow students to express their opinions, incorporating oral and written skills. The fact that there is no right or wrong answer about what is pleasing may give the student a certain comfort level, in knowing that opinions can be expressed without penalty.

When talking about the music itself, teachers can ask whether the music enhances the text, whether it sets the mood of the lyrics, whether it conveys a message or makes the meaning clearer, or perhaps interferes with the text. A song found in two languages may be used, not just for translation, but for comparison of a story in two cultures, for example, "My Way" ("Comme d'habitude"), originally a French song by Claude François with a totally different story (not a translation) in the English version by Paul Anka. Students should be encouraged to discuss the

musical style used for certain songs, as in the following example by Jean-Jacques Goldman, "Long Is the Road." The text tells an interesting story of immigrants coming to the United States, and the music begins in a traditional rock style. After the second chorus in English, the music takes a new twist, changing into a gospel, spiritual style. Students could ponder why this music is or is not appropriate for a story about immigrants, or what connotation this musical style might imply about the United States in the eyes of the rest of the world.

Au-delà de nos vents, passée notre frontière
Dans ces pays soleil de sable et de pierre
Là où malgré les croix et malgré les prières
Les dieux ont oublié ces maudites terres.
Dans sa pauvre valise, ses maigres affaires
Une histoire banale d'homme et de misère
Il tient dans sa chemise ses ultimes richesses
Ses deux bras courageux, sa rude jeunesse
Et tout contre sa peau comme un trésor inca
Son nom sur un visa pour les USA.
But long is the road
Hard is the way
Heavy my load
But deep is my faith
Long is the road
Sur des highways sixty-one l'ombre d'un Zimmermann
Dix trains de losers pour un Rockefeller
Brûler sa peau pour être un Battling Joe
Quand chaque espoir se décline en dollars
Jusqu'aux bannières où les stars s'affichent
Sous les lumières tout est blanc, propre et riche
Du jeudi noir jusqu'aux bleus de John Ford.
Dans chaque histoire se cache un chercheur d'or.

Literature in Music

Less explored in music is the use of literary texts, an idea useful in literature courses, certainly, but also in beginning language classes. Literary study explores the thoughts of people in a historical context and examples are available in music from the early French, Italian, German, and Spanish songs of the Middle Ages to contemporary European literature. Authentic recordings make use of instruments from each era. Music stores will have catalogs for selections they do not usually carry, and music libraries of universities may have good choices. It is possible to incorporate discussion on the development of the European languages through the musical examples, since medieval and Renaissance language in the texts will be different from modern languages. Music may make the literature more accessible at an earlier learning level because of the attraction of the melody and rhythm and because of the students' emotional reaction.

Research says that poetry is the most difficult literary form for teachers to teach and the most difficult for students to understand (Federici 1989). When a single

poem has been set to music by more than one composer, as Verlaine's poem "Green" has been by French composers Debussy and Fauré, the competing versions lend themselves to comparisons: of the structure of the poetry adapted to each musical setting, of the functions of the different accompaniments. Students can identify any scenic text-painting with the benefit of the comparison. With a little preparation, even beginning classes can appreciate poetry set to music, for example, Goethe's "Erlkönig" set to music by Schubert in 1819. The piano accompaniment suggests a galloping horse while one singer interprets the characters of the father, son, erlking, and narrator. The music provides a memorable atmosphere for the story.

Literature that is usually reserved for advanced students can be introduced earlier if presented properly. A work like Eluard's poem, "Le Travail du peintre," links literature, the visual arts, and music, when studied in Poulenc's musical setting. Students can compare the musical style depicting each of the seven painters (Picasso, Chagall, Braque, Gris, Klee, Miró, Villon) with the textual descriptions.

Opera is often considered too complicated, yet it provides an excellent manner to examine literature, especially in French, German, and Italian. Several videos of operas are available, and students could compare the musical version of the story with literary presentations, for example, Bizet's *Carmen* with its source, Mérimée's story. The teacher could play a video excerpt and ask what is happening. Students could compare characters from one opera to another, for example, *Carmen* to Massenet's *Manon*. In less advanced classes, communication activities can be derived from literature found in operas. Poulenc's one-act, one-person setting of Cocteau's *La Voix humaine* lends itself to various proficiency activities. The opera consists of a one-sided telephone conversation, and the obvious activity would be to create the dialogue of the other party. In addition, oral or written questions and answers would be appropriate, either about the story or about the music. Students could determine what instrument denotes the sound of the telephone, the use of music during the character's silence, and how music enhances the drama. Even in beginning classes, students can be exposed to great literature and great music from the target culture.

In a contemporary mode, the rock opera *La Révolution française* provides accessible music, with various characters portrayed musically. The clergy sings in a Gregorian chant style with pipe organ accompaniment. The French people appear in a hard-rock style with a driving rhythm. The nobles' music is somewhat classical in orientation. The king's children sing a playful, happy melody, oblivious to the dangerous situation. Other characters include King Louis XVI, Marie-Antoinette, Talleyrand, Robespierre, Danton, Marat, and Charlotte Corday, each with distinct music. The emotional impact of the music makes the revolution not just a historical event, but a human event, implying real people and real situations.[7] The Spanish equivalent would be *Evita*, a rock opera in English but available in Spanish. The work is an interesting introduction to Argentina.

Conclusion

Music's greatest asset is its flexibility. Careful perusal of songs, both classical and contemporary, can produce examples that lend themselves to illustrate all

three dimensions of music—style, text, and communication activities. The use of music has made gigantic strides in the past quarter-century, from simple recreation to sound pedagogical application today. There is always room to grow, and certainly teachers will devise their own methods of utilizing music with each occasion. Research has shown that the language teacher who incorporates multiple learning strategies can make language learning an enabling process for students and give students with divergent learning styles the opportunity to choose among the options (Nyikos 1991). This correlates with Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences and his advocacy of adding music to our activities to enable teachers to reach each student.

The challenge for foreign language educators is to give music a try in the classroom in any level and in any course. Though foreign language teachers are not interested in teaching music skills, they can use students' musical intelligence to achieve mastery of other linguistic skills. Music makes the foreign language classroom more interdisciplinary, multicultural, and global in perspective, and it captures students' interest and may promote more thorough learning of the target language, both culturally and communicatively.

Notes

1. For current examples of how schools are incorporating Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences into their programs, see *Educational Leadership* (1992).
2. The principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools and a partial list of participating schools can be found in Sizer (1991). Further information can be obtained from Mr. Sizer at Brown University. This author is familiar with three schools in the Coalition in the area of the author's home.
3. This song (and also "Sag mir, wo die Blumen sind") is from a collection published by Langenscheidt (*Heute hier, morgen dort*) of German classical, contemporary, folk, and jazz songs on cassette with a workbook of activities to accompany the music. Langenscheidt has a U.S. office at 46-35 54 Rd., Maspeth, NY 11378, tel. 800-432-6277.
4. This collection comes with a cassette and lyrics from Gessler Publishing Company, 55 W. 13 St., New York, NY 10011, tel. 800-456-5825.
5. This collection features original songs focusing on certain vocabulary or grammar points with cassette provided. One side of the cassette is instrumental only, allowing for original student texts. This collection is also available for Spanish, German, and ESL.
6. The *Cantos ritmos y rimas* book of rhyming verses on certain grammar points comes with a cassette featuring such traditional Latin rhythms as the samba. One side is instrumental only. It is also available in French.
7. Vialet discusses possibilities for the use of operas in university-level courses.

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7
The Parent Factor in FLES

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Today more than at any other time in the history of the United States parents exert power and control over their children's schools. In the past, parents influenced outcomes in education through the election booth for millages and tuition at private schools. Now, in addition to the financial control they possess, parents determine policy as members of governance committees in districts that subscribe to site-based (school-based) management.[1] Twenty states have enacted formal parent involvement legislation (Nardine & Morris 1991). Still another indication of the importance and timeliness of the topic is that two major educational journals recently dedicated entire issues to the topic of parent involvement in the schools.[2]

All foreign language teachers can attest to the importance of parents in a second language program. Many foreign language educators recount heartwarming stories of parents who sell candy or work paper drives to help their child earn a trip abroad. Other teachers beam as they describe the efforts of a group of parents who assist with an international festival at the school. Unfortunately, there is another group of foreign language professionals who describe communities that do not support foreign language in the schools. Lack of community (voter) support translates into weakened or cut programs. In the 1960s, foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) experienced this phenomenon to the point of near extinction.

This is a critical time for foreign language educators to understand the importance, force, and benefit of parent involvement in the K–12 schools. Most teacher-training institutions dedicate little time to the issue of public relations and dealing with parents and the community. Teachers who use a trial-and-error method with the public can find it costly to the life of a foreign language program. Therefore, it is important that foreign language educators be armed with the necessary information to interact effectively with parents and the community.

The purpose of this article is to examine the influence of parents in foreign language programs, in particular foreign language in the elementary school (FLES). First, this article will discuss in general terms the involvement of parents in the schools and how this affects the schools and their programs. Then the reader will

learn of a well-conceived parent initiative to incorporate FLES in the curriculum. Finally, this article will share a list of suggestions on eliciting positive parental involvement to assist with foreign language programs.

Parental Involvement in the Schools

Stories abound when teachers share their encounters with parents. Some are touching, others are frustrating. Teachers categorize parents on the basis of their experiences by using some of the following descriptors: helpful, annoying, delightful, negligent. Some suggest parents can be described in terms of their involvement. Vandergrift and Greene (1992) define four types of parents.

• Supportive of child (for example, often encourages) • Active participant (for example, helps child with homework)	• Not supportive of child (for example, ignores child) • Active participant (for example, comes to school if food is provided)
• Supportive of child (for example, cares for well-being) •Inactive participant (for example, rarely comes to school activities)	• Not supportive of child (for example, is abusive) • Inactive participant (for example, no communication with school)

SOURCE: From Judith A. Vandergrift and Andrea L. Greene, "Rethinking Parent Involvement," *Educational Leadership* 50,1 (1992): 59.

Another researcher groups parents into five categories of involvement (Brandt 1989). Although investigators employ a variety of methods and terminology to classify the different types of parents, researchers agree that there is a common bond uniting them all: the desire to have the best education possible for their children (Jennings 1989). The lowest common denominator of what parents desire from school personnel is respect, being treated as equals, and a personal touch from the school (Lindle 1989).

What do we mean by "parent involvement"? Parent involvement is the degree to which parents take a role in their child's education. The continuum spans from "no interest" on the part of the parent to "highly active" participation in assisting with the governance and teaching in the schools.

After more than a decade of research on the topic of parent involvement, investigators report several interesting findings. First, parents of all socioeconomic classes want to help their children. Only 2 to 5 percent of all parents are unable to further their children's cause because of their own personal problems. Also, the large majority of parents desire to assist their children, but schools schedule workshops and meetings at times when the vast majority of parents who must work for a living cannot attend (Brandt 1989).

There is a high correlation between school curricula, family involvement, and student success, and some states and communities are finally realizing the link

(Epstein 1991). These states and communities launched formal parent involvement programs that focus the efforts of the parents into positive outcomes for the schools.

All effective parent involvement programs possess similar characteristics. Williams and Chavkin (1989) list seven common elements to all successful parent involvement programs. They are

1. Written policies
2. Administrative support
3. Training
4. Partnership approach
5. Two-way communication
6. Networking
7. Evaluation

Written Policies. The first element necessary for a successful parent involvement program is a written policy. Written policies state goals and objectives and give importance to the programs. They provide evidence of an ongoing commitment to school boards and members of the community (Williams & Chavkin 1989).

Administrative Support. Administrative support, another essential for successful school–parent cooperatives, provides program implementation monies, meeting space, duplicating, and someone to coordinate teachers and parents "to enhance classroom instruction and enrich parent participation" (Williams & Chavkin 1989: 19).

Training. The assumption must not be made that teachers and parents will know automatically how to work with each other for the benefit of the child. By offering training in the form of workshops and seminars, parents and teachers improve their skills when joining forces for the children. Workshop topics might include incorporating site-based management in the school or effective ways to teach reading (Williams & Chavkin 1989).

Partnership and Two-Way Communication. Using the partnership approach in parent involvement programs instills ownership for all participants. No enterprise achieves a high level of success unless all parties are shareholders in the results. Employing two-way communication advances the interpersonal communication skills of both groups. For example, teachers learn how not to be threatened by parent input and parents become informed about the best times for drop-in visits to the schools (Williams & Chavkin 1989).

Networking. Another element of successful parent involvement programs is to encourage networking among parent programs between districts. This affords the opportunity to learn from the experiences of others. Groups benefit from the experiences of parent teams across the town or state, and they are able to avoid the proverbial reinvention of the wheel.

Evaluation. Evaluation remains an essential element to any undertaking. Assessment provides data for working toward growth and improvement (Williams & Chavkin 1989).

It is interesting to note that parent involvement programs across the country exhibit a number of commonalities. First, parents and teachers discover similarities

where they once assumed differences. For example, parents and teachers realize they operate under a similar set of goals and objectives. Another commonality among national efforts is that all foreign language programs must continue throughout the K–12 education sequence. Previously it was thought that parent involvement was an issue only at the elementary level. Yet another commonality that research reveals is that parent involvement makes a teacher's job easier. Finally, participants agree that program development is a slow process, necessitating years to observe real change (Epstein 1991).

For a number of years, the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) and seats on the local school board offered parents the principal routes to becoming involved with the schools. It was not until the virtual collapse of several large urban districts in the 1980s that parents demanded a more active, hands-on role in the governance of their schools. In cities like Chicago, parents formed governance committees to deal with the issues of their schools when the district's central administration had grown too large and bureaucratic. Today districts nationwide subscribe to site-based management, which gives the control of a school to its population. Committees govern the school, and these committees usually have parent representation.

How do districts start up parent involvement programs? Some federal grant money is available for schools with a plan to develop parent–school partnerships (Cross et al. 1991). Many schools organize successful parent efforts with little or no local monies. Several states such as California, Illinois, and Tennessee have widespread projects that take advantage of parental involvement (Chapman 1991; Lueder 1989; Solomon 1991).

What implications does this information on parental involvement hold for foreign language education? Foreign language educators must be aware of and take advantage of this trend in the United States. When parents become directly involved with the schools, they understand more fully the school's mission, curriculum, and operation. Armed with this information, parents evolve as either advocates or adversaries for foreign language according to the way they view the importance of the program. Their stances manifest themselves during voting for school board members and millages. Parents can also offer support by means of tutoring, making certain their child is completing assignments, and volunteering to help the foreign language clubs. Foreign language educators must learn to tap parents as a resource in the development and maintenance of strong foreign language programs.

Parental Involvement in FLES

All individuals involved with foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) will affirm that parents play a critical role in the life of a program. Garnering parent support for FLES ensures the continuation of the program after the glow and excitement of initial implementation fades. Some communities work through organizations like Advocates for Language Learning (ALL), a grass-roots organization founded by parents that supports the study of second languages. Other communities begin foreign language programs without the benefit of a formal organization, as did Holland, Michigan.

Located on the shore of Lake Michigan, Holland's population of approximately 30,000 consists largely of citizens of Dutch descent. In the past five years, though, the Hispanic population has exploded due to a strong industrial base in the community. Holland is home to a number of mid-sized to large industries. Well-known furniture manufacturers, businesses related to the auto industry, and companies such as BASF, Heinz, and Life Savers employ large numbers of Latinos. The city now reports a 12 percent Hispanic population, with the schools reporting 16 percent of the student body as Hispanic. The majority inhabitants are proud of their Dutch heritage and their all-American city image.

In the summer of 1989, two parents had a vision.[3] The husband had just returned from a sabbatical in Russia, where he observed that children knew more than one language. He and his wife wanted the same for their kindergarten-aged daughter. In the fall of 1989, they met with their PTO and expressed an interest in having a second language offered to the children at Jefferson Elementary. The PTO authorized a committee of three to survey the other parents in the school in order to ascertain whether there was a desire for an after-school program. The three parents developed a survey asking questions such as "if you are interested in such a program, what language should be offered?" and "how often and when should classes meet, and what would you be willing to pay?" They surveyed all 350 parents of the school; 87 parents completed the questionnaire. The respondents expressed interest in French, German, Dutch, Arabic, Japanese, and Spanish, with Spanish being the most frequently mentioned. Based on this and other information received from the surveys, the parents prepared a summary and reported their findings to the PTO in January 1990. The PTO and Jefferson's principal supported the report as well as the notion of teaching a second language to children.

The PTO committee and the principal worked to arrange the experience for their children and the PTO announced the first after-school classes that spring, which were to meet twice a week for six weeks, each meeting lasting forty-five minutes. The parents interviewed, hired, and supervised the teachers and also oversaw all the details of the program, such as making sure materials were available to the teacher. They offered four classes with a total enrollment of sixty-three children. Parents paid $12 per child, an amount the organizers calculated would allow them to break even. The school contributed materials and space for the classes. The organizers determined that the first six-week experience was a success, and they offered another six-week session that spring.

The other eight elementary school PTOs in the system quickly learned of Jefferson Elementary's after-school foreign language program and were most eager to duplicate the experience for their children.

The Jefferson PTO committee of three parents shared their information and experiences by consulting with parents at the other schools and by writing a manual describing how to organize a cocurricular second language experience. In spring 1990, the Jefferson committee of three initiated talks with the Holland City Schools' superintendent of curriculum, organizing a meeting that included the chairperson of foreign languages at Hope College, a four-year liberal arts college located in Holland. Also invited to the meeting were high school foreign language teachers and elementary school teachers and principals. As a result of the

meeting, the superintendent formed a citywide steering committee of parents, administrators, and teachers to formalize a vision and goal statement for foreign language in the elementary school. By the summer of 1990 talk about a citywide foreign language program began.

The citywide steering committee expressed a concern for doing what was right for children. They consulted an expert on FLES programs, and she provided a half-day workshop for the committee during the summer of 1990. After that workshop, the steering committee completed their mission statement and asked the FLES expert to return in October of that year to deliver a day-long workshop. The steering committee invited the entire community—school board members, school administrators, and teachers. Approximately sixty people attended. The goal of the workshop was to share with the community the importance of foreign language study for children and elicit support and backing for the cause.

During the fall of 1990, Jefferson and a number of the other elementary schools offered Spanish cocurricular programs. The steering committee now expressed two goals: (1) to provide a similar after-school curriculum for all the schools in the district and (2) to work toward incorporating Spanish into the regular elementary school curriculum. To achieve the first goal, the parents wrote a grant application to a local foundation to fund the writing of a curriculum. The foundation supported the request, and the parent committee hired the FLES consultant to write a curriculum that could be used in their after-school program. To achieve the second goal, the parent committee went to the Holland School Board in December of 1990 to request the formation of a committee to study the feasibility of FLES in the curriculum.

The school board created a committee of principals, teachers, and parents to investigate the possibility of FLES in the curriculum. The FLES committee completed a one-year study and reported back to the school board in March 1992. They recommended an articulated, integrated, content-based foreign language component to the regular elementary school curriculum. The board received the report enthusiastically. Funding remained the only obstacle.

Up to this point, readers may be saying to themselves "Sounds ideal, but it won't work in my district. My school board is not supportive of foreign language study." The excellent reception of the 1992 report by the Holland board was the result of hard work and preparation.

First, the FLES study committee included parents, teachers, and administrators who began the assignment with sentiments against foreign language in the elementary school. These individuals felt the school day was already overcrowded and that students needed the basics of reading, writing, science, and mathematics. It was no small accomplishment for the committed pro–foreign language members of the committee to win over the others. The committee read journal articles on FLES, visited established elementary school classes in other Michigan cities, and consulted with experts in the field. The data they uncovered convinced all the committee members that foreign language study for children is indeed beneficial. That effort, combined with a final report presented and printed in a highly articulate, professional manner led the Holland board to its positive reception. As one committee member said, "The group did its homework."

The Ups and Downs of the Holland Program

The Holland parents report that they experienced, and continue to experience, a number of obstacles and frustrations in implementing FLES. For example, Holland City Schools received a new superintendent on August 1, 1992, and at the writing of this article his sentiments on FLES remain unknown. The former superintendent was very supportive of the program, in part due to the public relations effort of the parents. In addition, the nine PTOs released the control of their cocurricular Spanish program to Community Education in the fall of 1991, since the administration of the program was becoming too large and cumbersome for the parents. Through a lack of care on the part of Community Education, the program disappeared by spring of 1992. Lack of publicity, a raise in tuition, and failure to offer scholarships contributed to the death of the program.

One unexpected joy was the cocurricular program's reception by the Hispanic community. They expressed overwhelming delight that their children could participate in such a program (most Hispanic children in Holland do not speak Spanish). They conveyed pride that their language had been chosen and that the community cared enough to learn more about the essence of being Hispanic.

Several episodes combined simultaneous pleasurable and difficult aspects. The parent committee members enjoyed working with a wide variety of school and community people, yet from time to time they found dealing with differing opinions and personalities to be challenging. The cocurricular offerings grew in popularity almost overnight, yet that fact occasioned the nearly unmanageable task, for working parents, of hiring, training, and supervising several teachers. As the program grew in popularity, direct involvement with the program became increasingly difficult.

What the parents found the most difficult was coordinating the cocurricular program while at the same time advocating the integration of FLES into the regular curriculum. The dual goals required considerable time, effort, and attention from people already busy with full-time jobs and families.

The Accomplishments of the Holland Program to Date

The Holland initiative demonstrates the fact that parent involvement in foreign language issues does not generate positive results overnight. It requires years of persistent effort. What the Holland parents have accomplished to date is to convince a community of the benefits of foreign language study for children. The community understands that studying another language is important for a world that is increasingly dependent on a global economy. The parents persuaded local industries that a FLES program is in their best interest, and businesses demonstrated their endorsement through minigrants to underwrite the curriculum and through financing lead teacher positions for the cocurricular project.

Suggestions for Parental Involvement in Foreign Languages

K–12 foreign language teachers understand the influence parents exert, especially when jobs and programs hang in the balance of election booth results.

Whether parents demonstrate a high level of competency in another language is not important. What does matter is that they display an enthusiasm for all K–12 students to study another language. The following are suggestions for instituting support for foreign language programs.

1. Identify well-respected members of the community to help with the foreign language program. These individuals can help organize an international fair at the school, come to the school to read in the target language, or ask businesspeople to give a talk on the importance of knowing another language. These adults are invaluable to ensure the continuation of programs and the inception of others. They network with the necessary parties to secure the ongoing success of K–12 foreign languages.
2. Start an ALL chapter. Unifying community forces provides the necessary support that foreign languages need, especially in light of locales that utilize site-based management.
3. Identify members of the school board, school administration, and local government who are influential and invite them to observe and participate in foreign language classes and special programs.
4. Offer to provide "entertainment" for meetings like the PTA, Rotary, or Kiwanis. The students sell foreign languages better than any other marketing tool.
5. Profit from resources available through the Center for Applied Linguistics that offer suggestions on how parents can help their children learn a foreign language (Robison 1990; Rosenbusch 1987, 1991).
6. Encourage and offer foreign language instruction for adults in the community.
7. Learn public relations and business marketing techniques. As segments of the curriculum compete for limited resources, foreign language teachers must understand and utilize the processes to achieve their goals.

Conclusion

The involvement of parents in our schools can be a welcome contribution to foreign language programs. In the case of Holland, Michigan, parents assisted in the implementation of a FLES program that benefited the entire community. Teachers alone lack the power base necessary to institute and sustain this sort of initiative. They require the support of the parents and the community. The couple who began the Holland project were asked whether they would do anything differently. They responded "no." They described the process as a learning experience during which they met wonderful people. They discovered that working toward a FLES program in their schools provided a way of intermingling the majority and minority cultures of their city. They talked of learning how to learn and how to get along with each other. In the end, isn't that what education is all about?

Notes

1. See Heining-Boynton (1992) for a description of site-based management and its implications for foreign language education.

2. The entire issues of *Phi Delta Kappan* for January 1991 (vol. 72) and *Educational Leadership* for October 1989 (vol. 47, no. 2) devote themselves to the issue of parental involvement in education.
3. Dr. Marc and Mrs. Patti Baer are the parents who began the quest for FLES in the Holland City Schools. They can be reached by writing to them at Hope College, Holland, Michigan.

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8
All around the World:
A Global Unit for Upper Elementary Students

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"All around the World: A Global Unit for Elementary Students" was designed as a three-week unit for the children's German class at the 1991 Iowa State University Summer FLES Institute (Foreign Language in the Elementary Schools). This language class is designed to provide language instruction to elementary students while modeling teaching methods to potential elementary foreign language teachers. The potential teachers also develop and teach activities within the unit. Since 1989, the Institute has made global issues a focus for a unit approach to the fourteen hours of language instruction (Rosenbusch 1992).

Research has shown that students learn more of the target language when the information is relevant to the students' interests (Olliphant 1990). When the target language is interesting and useful to the student, the students' affective filter is lowered and the students retain more of the information. Content-based foreign language instruction provides a concrete connection to other subjects with which the student is already familiar. It reinforces the subject as well as provides realistic use of the second language.

The State of Iowa has mandated that global education shall be incorporated into all areas and levels of instruction (Iowa Global Education Task Force 1989). Foreign language instruction can be considered global in nature in its exposure to another culture and perhaps world issues. It can take on an even wider view, however, by including aspects of the five global themes (global interdependence; human resources, values and cultures; global environment and natural resources; global peace and conflict management; and change and alternative futures) as designated by the Iowa Standard for Global Education. "All around the World" touched on all five themes in varying degrees.

This article will present an overview of how the unit was organized around these themes and some of the activities taught at the Summer Institute. Some of the activities were further tested in other classes, and these variations and alternatives will be included to illustrate the adaptability of the unit. German was used most of the time; only complex concepts were discussed in English. All the questions

and commands directed to the students in this article would have been spoken in German during the class.

The Structure of the Unit

The unit is divided into three parts. The first part is the learning of names and locations of the seven continents and four oceans. Included in this section are the names and locations of landforms found on the continents. The second part builds onto the first with the identification of animals indigenous to each continent. The interdependency of the food chain is also explored. The third part focuses on the wildlife and habitat of Antarctica. The part Antarctica plays in the world's food chain and weather patterns establishes the interconnectedness of the globe and the importance of political treaties and environmental issues concerning Antarctica. Also in this segment are activities to illustrate the necessity of planning for the future as it affects Antarctica, which, in turn, will affect the entire globe.

Geographic Vocabulary

The unit began with the locating and labeling of the world's seven continents and four oceans on a wall-sized world map. Students were asked to put the labels written in German onto the correct geographic area. Iowa and Germany were located on their respective continents. The discussion established that Iowa is a state in the country of the United States, which is located in North America; and that Germany, located in Europe, is a country made up of many states and has the same political status as the United States. Other countries on the other continents were discussed with attention to the fact that Australia is the only continent with only one country and Antarctica is the only continent with no permanent residents. This was done very briefly, for the identification was the main focus.

The North Pole and the South Pole were also located. A natural extension of that information was the labeling of the cardinal directions. Using this basic vocabulary, the students were then asked questions about the locations of the continents and were asked to perform simple identifications. Sample questions asked in German were "Where is Africa?" "Is Asia north or south of Australia?" and "What continent is east of Europe?"

Common Vocabulary

The use of the world map provided an opportunity to discuss relative sizes. Using arm gestures to indicate the meanings of 'small' and 'large,' questions such as "Is Asia small or large?" and "Is Antarctica smaller or larger than South America?" could be asked. Although the cardinal directions and the comparative adjectives 'small' and 'large' were not the main objective, they were easy concepts to present in relationship to the names and locations of the continents and oceans and could easily be reinforced throughout the unit.

The use of the world map also provided the opportunity to incorporate colors and shapes. The students were shown small laminated construction paper cutouts of each continent. Each continent was a different color. The students were asked to name the continents, identifying them by shape and relative size. After each continent was correctly identified, the statement "Yes, Antarctica is pink" (or whatever the continent and color was) was made. This introduced the color words in a very concrete manner as opposed to presenting them in isolation. It also reinforced the names of the continents. Questions such as "What continent is purple?" and "What color is North America?" were asked. The simple one-word answers gave the students opportunities to succeed early in the class. If a student was confused, questions such as "Is this continent Asia or Africa?" and "Is this continent pink or blue?" were asked. Other questions could be phrased to elicit yes-or-no answers such as "Is this yellow?" and "Is this Australia?"

Geological Concepts and Vocabulary

The next segment of the unit introduced basic landforms to the students via pictures. The landforms presented were deserts, rivers, forests, mountains, volcanoes, flatlands, icebergs, and rain forests. After introducing the vocabulary, a graph was made to indicate what landforms were found on each of the continents. It was interesting to discover what the students already knew and what were mistaken common assumptions. For example, even though Antarctica contains 70 percent of the world's fresh water in its frozen icecap, it is really a desert, since its average rainfall is almost negligible. Another interesting fact is that all the continents have volcanoes, including Antarctica, where Mt. Erebus was active in the 1980s. While graphing this information about the continents, to give the information more personal meaning, landforms found in Iowa and Germany were also compared in order to give the information more personal meaning.

Since rain forests are found only in hot climates and icebergs only where it is very cold, relative temperatures of the various continents were discussed. Deserts were found to be places of extreme temperatures, both hot and cold. To emphasize the comparative words of 'warm, warmer, warmest,' and 'hot,' a small cutout of Africa was hidden in the room while one student was outside of the classroom. When the student was called to return, the remaining students guided the student to the location by giving clues of 'warm, warmer, warmest, hot,' and 'very hot.' The closer the student came to the cutout, the "warmer" he or she became. The same was done using the cutout of Antarctica and using the words 'cold, colder, coldest,' and 'freezing,' as one obviously becomes much colder the closer one is to Antarctica. This proved to be a popular though often a noisy game.

Summary Activity

The last activity was to design an imaginary continent using landforms. On the blackboard a large circle three to four feet in diameter was drawn. Using pictographs, mountains, rivers, deserts, forests, rain forests, and flatlands were

drawn in the circle. The cardinal directions were labeled. The students were asked such questions as "Are the mountains north or south of the river?" and "Can a rain forest possibly be so close to the desert?" and "Where is it hot most of the year?" The students were then shown a modeling-plastic model of a continent made on a nine-inch paper plate. They were asked to identify the landforms. For this activity the students were each given a paper plate and modeling plastic and instructed to create their own continent, which had to include the major landforms. Several students went beyond the requirements and added deltas to their rivers, bays, and glaciers. Since they labeled the landforms in German, this was an opportunity for students to learn some extra vocabulary.

Review and Assessment

Landforms

As a final review and an assessment of the learning that had taken place, slides of various landforms were shown.[1] The students were asked to name each landform and to decide whether there was any clue to where the landform could be located. Higher-order thinking skills were used to decide which clues were unique to one continent and which could apply to several. Obvious clues included a flatlands scene with an African elephant in the foreground surrounded by savanna-type grass. A desert scene of Bedouins herding sheep was obviously not in Antarctica but could have been either Africa or Asia. Many of the slides included animals in them, which was a prelude to the second portion of the unit, animals and their natural habitats.

Animal Life

The second section began with identification of animals native to specific continents. Introduced through photographs and cartoon pictures, students discussed the native habitats of these animals. A partial listing of animals used is as follows:

North America—raccoon, moose, and eagle
South America—vicuña, llama, sloth, and parrot
Antarctica—penguin, whale, and sea lion
Australia—koala bear, kangaroo, and platypus
Asia—panda, tiger, and cobra
Africa—lion, elephant, zebra, and giraffe
Europe—mountain goat, hedgehog, and dairy cow

Obviously there are some animals that can be found on almost all the continents, such as varieties of mice, rabbits, bears, and snakes.

Checkout Activity

An activity was designed to spot-check the students' ability to assimilate the vocabulary learned to this point. Each student was given a copy of the world map with no political boundaries. They were then instructed to draw specific landforms and animals in geographic areas of the world using only certain colors. Commands such as "Draw a purple penguin in Antarctica" and "With black, draw a volcano in the Pacific Ocean" were given. This activity ascertained the students' knowledge of continents, oceans, animals, landforms, and colors. Numbers were also included with commands such as "Draw four rabbits on a mountain in North America."

The Food Chain

The other concept introduced at this time was the food chain. (Now more accurately described as a food *web*.) The animals introduced by continent were categorized as carnivores, herbivores, and omnivores by deciding if the animal ate meat, plants, or both plants and animals. The food web was illustrated with the tiny sea animal, the krill, that is eaten by small fish, which are in turn eaten by larger fish, which are then eaten by penguins, which are eaten by sea lions, which make a tasty snack for killer whales. Several other food webs were also discussed, such as how grass is eaten by cows, which are eaten by humans, but that many other animals eat the grass too.

If animals are dependent on other animals for food, the question was posed: What would happen if the basic food source were altered in some way? To graphically demonstrate the potential dangers to krill, a packet of krill or brine shrimp eggs was purchased. The eggs were mixed in a brine solution and allowed to incubate. The eggs hatch in about 24–48 hours and the students were amazed at how tiny the brine shrimp were. Since krill is also a main source of food for whales, the students were asked to estimate how many krill an average whale would have to eat in one day to stay alive. It was a good exercise in exploring the larger numbers!

To illustrate what happens to krill when its habitat is altered, the number of hatched krill was estimated. Then several drops of motor oil were placed in the krill jar. At end of the class hour, the number of live krill were seen to decrease. The next day several more drops of motor oil were put into the jar, and by the end of the hour there were no visible living krill. The students were then asked to hypothesize on what the reduction of the number of krill would mean to the fishing industry and the whale population. Some students felt that they would not be directly affected because Iowa is not dependent on the fishing industry. Another student mentioned, however, that if there wasn't enough fish, people who were dependent on fish for food would either die or try to take over other food sources on which Iowa's economy is based.

Story and Role-Play Activities

This segment of the unit continues to emphasize Antarctica. Landforms, climate, and animals native to the continent were reviewed. In order to tie in the

food web with Antarctica and also present a more well-rounded approach to language learning, a story was developed on the basis of "The Three Little Pigs." The characters were changed to three little penguins and the big, bad seal. The three penguins built their homes of traditional straw, stick, and brick.

The story activity not only emphasized the food chain but also led to a discussion of housing materials in Antarctica. Since the only materials for houses would have been small rocks and ice, the penguins would have had a hard time building any structure there. The same problem faces explorers and scientists. This problem, combined with the harsh climate and constantly moving ice pack that covers the continent, makes the building of permanent structures very difficult.

To show human influence in Antarctica, the story activity was introduced with slides of scientific bases located there. The slides also reviewed the animals and landforms of Antarctica. A short video of a tourist expedition was also presented to show a new type of human involvement in the ecosystem there.

The students then went on an imaginary trip to a scientific research station on the Ross Ice Shelf. Layers of clothing necessary for survival were demonstrated. On the journey there were many places where students were asked to count penguins and walruses and note temperature changes, which reviewed numbers. They were able to visit research bases built and staffed by the seven other nations that maintain residences there. Colors were reviewed by identifying the flags of the other countries.

Because some of the information was rather abstract, some time was spent talking in English about the territorial claims of the eight nations that have established bases on Antarctica.

The politics involved in maintaining these claims are primarily based on unknown resource potentials that lie under the miles-thick ice cap. And while the resource potentials may be substantiated by historical explorations, the claims often give way to the realities of surviving in a hostile environment of extreme cold temperatures and fierce winds. In fact, there are many more instances of cooperation than formal observation of territorial boundaries, which many countries ignore or refuse to acknowledge as legal.

One of the many things that scientists are studying is the increasing size of a hole in the ozone layer in the atmosphere above Antarctica. This phenomenon has created many hypotheses about the eventuality of global warming. The students seemed to be aware of the damage pollution and fluorocarbons have done to the ozone. Another story was developed to illustrate the need for awareness of the problem.

One of the stories developed combined almost all the aspects of the unit: continents, animals, and ecological concern for the world. Peter Penguin is a modern Chicken Little, who, after being badly sunburned, realizes that there is a hole in the ozone directly above him. As in the classic story, he runs to tell the king that the ozone has a hole. On his journey he meets Katerina Kangaroo from Australia, Verena Vicuña from South America, Albert Eagle from North America, Wolfgang Wolf from Europe, Bettina Panda Bear from Asia, and Günther Gorilla from Africa. Each one is very concerned about the hole in the ozone and travels with Peter Penguin to tell the king. The last animal they meet is a two-legged beast called "Man." He tells them they are on the wrong path and need only to follow

him to find the king. This they do. But instead of warning the king of the impending danger, they end up as trophies on the man's wall.

After this rather pessimistic story of the human lack of concern for the environment, it was decided that the class should end on a more positive note. A simulation exercise was devised to allow the students to do some creative thinking about the future. Ways to clean up our environment were discussed. The students seemed to be well informed in this area. Then they were divided into eight groups to represent the eight nations with claims to Antarctica. A poster-board map of the continent was cut into eight pie-shaped wedges and each group was given its own piece. This was to be their land. The groups were instructed to locate their territory on the larger map of Antarctica and to decide what landforms are located there.

To provide a hypothetical circumstance, it was decreed that they were new settlers to the continent, which was now devoid of its ice caps and was located in a temperate climate. Each section of the map was blessed with some natural resources but not all. The students were then instructed to come up with a plan to procure all the things needed to live. Most of the students immediately began to bargain and trade resources with the other groups. When "life" became a little too easy, a natural disaster was announced. One group decided that they did not want to cooperate and were going to procure their needs by might. It was interesting to see how the other groups responded to that action. In a matter of a few minutes, there appeared to be a need for United Nations type diplomacy as one group and then another became angry at the belligerence of the uncooperative group. It was easy to point out that a country's natural resources and the personalities of its inhabitants can influence world politics.

Concluding Activity

The unit ended with a small party in honor of all the continents. Taking the ice from the polar ice cap and mixing it with the cream from Europe, the students were served bowls of ice cream. They had their choice of coconut or mandarin oranges from Asia, chocolate from South America, peanuts from Africa, kiwis from New Zealand (not quite Australia, but close), and sunflower seeds and bananas from North America. Since none of these products is unique to any one modern continent, the last lesson focused on the history and importance of global trade. The students were asked to look at their clothing labels to determine where they were made. It was impressive to see how many articles of clothing came from countries around the world, such as Brazil, the Philippines, China, Mexico, and Japan.

Variations

Although all five of the global themes from the Iowa Global Mandate were addressed, they were not exhausted. Parts of the unit have since been taught by several teachers and to several types of classes. Each time that it has been taught, new variations developed. The unit was used in an introductory German class at a city library for younger elementary students. It was used in an extracurricular FLES program and in elementary classrooms. It was also the basis for the 1992 Iowa

State University FLES Summer Institute, where the segment on Antarctica was replaced with an exploration of backyard insects and animals and their food web, and the need to protect the groundwater was substituted for the ozone issue. With each new experience came new approaches and new materials.

Assessment Variations

A system of assessment was devised using an interesting concept that Helena Curtain presented at the Iowa Foreign Language Conference in October 1991. The technique was to turn a map or outline of a country upside down or sideways to see if the students could identify it in different positions.

For the pretest, the continent cutouts were taped to the blackboard with a number written beneath each of them. The students were given a sheet of paper with the German names for the continents listed on it. They were to match the name with the continent's shape by writing the number of the continent by its name on their paper.

For the posttest, the shapes of the continents were copied onto a worksheet, not all having the same orientation. Some were upside down and some were sideways. The students were asked to match the shape with the names written on the board. There was some confusion until someone blurted out, "Oh, some of them aren't right side up." All the students increased their correct answers on the posttest by 50 to 75 percent, even with the reorientations.

Story Activity Variations

A story that developed from the 1992 I.S.U. Summer FLES Institute was a variation on the story of "Goldilocks and the Three Bears." The story follows the familiar version except for one aspect. As Goldilocks goes on her walk through the woods, she takes a rather circuitous route. After walking a great distance, she meets a polar bear at the North Pole. They exchange greetings and Goldilocks asks if he has anything to eat, as she is very hungry. The polar bear offers her a freshly caught seal but she declines. She then asks directions home and he tells her to go south. Goldilocks, being a brave girl and a fast walker, arrives in South America, where she meets a parrot. Goldilocks and the parrot engage in another dialogue and insects are offered to the hungry girl. Again she refuses.

Goldilocks continues her journey, stopping on each continent and asking for food from a representative animal. A penguin in Antarctica offers frozen fish, a koala in Australia offers eucalyptus leaves, a panda in Asia offers a stock of bamboo, and a snake in Africa offers a mouse. By the time she reaches the Black Forest in Europe, she is very, very hungry and very, very tired. This is where she walks into the home of the three bears and makes herself comfortable.

The story line ends as the traditional story does with the discovery of Goldilocks in Baby Bear's bed. Goldilocks runs home to North America, and she decides not to venture out for some time. The story was told using stuffed animals and poster-board cutouts, but it could easily be adapted into a puppet play or acted out by students with animal masks.

A Variation on the Continent-Making Activity

A combination of the modeling-plastic continent-making activity and the cooperative living activity was demonstrated at the library class for younger elementary students. After creating continents and labeling the landforms of each, it was announced that gold had been found on the teacher's model continent. The teacher then dug through the modeling plastic, ruining the landscape but selling her gold for a great deal of money.

The students were initially impressed by her sudden wealth. Looking at her ruined continent, the teacher asked if she could live with one of the students on their continent. The students were reluctant to let her join them even when she offered them money. One student finally said that the teacher could join her, but she had to promise that she wouldn't dig for gold anymore. Even though the continents were only modeling-plastic lumps on a paper plate, the students felt ownership of their creation and would not allow them to be destroyed.

The teacher then drew a parallel about the resources in other places of the world. The students came to their own conclusion that money cannot restore the earth to its original form.

Parent Responses

At the end of the 1991 Summer Institute, parents were asked to fill out a questionnaire. All responded positively to the content relating to global issues in the material. Many felt that, though it was a novel approach to a summer language class, exposure to the subject was a timely concern and that their child learned more of the language because it was an interesting subject. On the first day of class of the 1992 Summer Institute at I.S.U., a student who had attended the previous year wanted to know what the "theme" was going to be for this year and if they could make another continent.

Conclusion

Elementary foreign language materials are in short supply. Using a unit approach allows the foreign language teacher to adapt premade materials from other subject areas. By covering any English text and translating vocabulary into age- and ability-appropriate phraseology, it is easy to see the usefulness of many classroom activities and materials once thought to be irrelevant to the foreign language teacher.

Two valuable poster sets that were discovered after the unit was taught are "Continents and Major Islands" and "Natural Regions of the World." These are both printed by Trend Enterprises.[2] The posters are large cutouts of the individual continents displaying only topographical features. They are excellent for decorating bulletin boards in large classrooms and, once laminated, are great for TPR exercises and for illustrating size, shape, and relative global locations. The English titles of the eight natural regions on the posters are easily covered. The scenes differentiate between Arctic and Antarctic polar regions and temperate and tropical grasslands and include a few representative animals of each region.

Each poster set also includes an information booklet that has been very valuable in developing lessons. For example, one lesson used an inflatable globe and a three-inch rubber "earth" ball, which shows the continents in green and the oceans in blue. After teaching the names and locations of the continents, a quick, fun review is to toss the ball to a student and ask the student to name the continent on which his or her thumb rests. One could be very specific here and ask for the right or left thumb (with the larger inflatable globe, the right or left hand).

Foreign language classes at the elementary level are often the first to be cut from the curriculum. Reinforcing the regular curriculum through content-area instruction can be a powerful defense against the idea that inclusion of a foreign language takes time away from the basic subjects (Evans 1987). Teaching a global issue in the elementary foreign language class emphasizes citizenship skills and downplays the notion that foreign language content is restricted to greetings, traveling, cultural aspects, and literary translations. It is hoped that this unit may then be a help toward the further understanding and development of global units for elementary foreign language classes.

"All around the World" covers several aspects of global education. Geographic information about the continents are interwoven with lessons in colors, size, and cardinal directions. Animals native to each continent are introduced, with emphasis on endangered species and habitats. The final segment focuses on the Antarctic region and its importance to the world's weather and the interdependency of the food chain. Exploring these concepts in German gives the students a dual opportunity. They are able to learn a foreign language while increasing their awareness of the world and its need for balance and protection.

Notes

1. All slides were reproduced from photographs from Time-Life Science Series:
   Bates, Marston. 1970. *The Land and Wildlife of South America.* New York: Time-Life.
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   Ripley, Sidney D. 1970. *Tropical Asia.* New York: Time-Life.
2. Trend Enterprises, Box 64073, St. Paul, MN 55164, publishes many materials for the classroom.

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9
Middle-School Foreign Language:
What Is It? What Should It Be?*

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The place of foreign languages in the middle school is once again a major agenda item in educational circles. As more states are mandating foreign language programs in the elementary and the middle grades, principals and other building and district-level administrators are viewing middle-school foreign language offerings with interest, concern, and at times, confusion. Models for middle-school foreign language programs that are consistent with the philosophy of middle-level education command their focus.

Middle-school philosophy poses questions for all middle-level educators. What does the research tell us about the developmental characteristics of children between the ages of 10 and 14? How do we incorporate our understanding of how these children learn into effective middle-level foreign language programs? What about the issue of outcomes? What should middle-level learners know and be able to do? What attitudes should they be developing along with their knowledge and ability? What are some appropriate models for middle-level foreign language programs? How can these models respond to the basic concerns about middle-level learners? And finally, how do these programs fit into the overall framework of a well-articulated districtwide foreign language program?

As many state and local school districts focus on middle-level foreign language programs, they are finding few models designed to fit their unique programing needs. Never has it been more timely to gather and update information on the issues of middle-level language programs. With this information, curriculum directors, administrators, and teachers will be provided with both background and direction as they seek to create or improve the programs in their schools.

Middle-School Foreign Language: What Is It?

The reality is that there are nearly as many configurations to middle-level foreign language programs and classes as there are schools and classrooms in which such instruction occurs. All too often this level seems to be "poor step-child" of the district's overall language program; seldom articulated or integrated and often ignored.

Three Program Types

Three common types of programs, however, do emerge: exploratory, entry level, and follow-up to elementary programs. The most frequently seen type of middle-level language class is the Foreign Language Exploratory (FLEX) class. Next are classes designated as the entry level for sequential skills-based courses. Finally, and the least frequently seen, are those programs that are a follow-up to Foreign Language Elementary School (FLES) classes. When an elementary school FLES, immersion, or partial immersion program is intact, middle-level courses serve as a follow-up to earlier study, and potentially, as a bridge to high school classes. When elementary programs are in place, ongoing instruction at the middle school must accommodate language learners who are drastically different from those who have had no previous second language experience. Exploratory, beginning sequential, and bridge structures each demand specific curricular responses to establish solid middle-level foreign language programs. They must address the questions and issues of articulation, curriculum design, and delivery of instruction.

Some State Initiatives

Responses and recommendations are beginning to emerge from a number of sources. In 1985, North Carolina became the first state in the nation to embark on the implementation of a K–12 program in second languages. In the summer of 1992 the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction distributed some recommendations in a document entitled "Building Bridges: A Guide to Second Languages in the Middle Grades" (North Carolina DPI 1991).

Recent legislation in states such as Michigan and Wisconsin has forced local districts to take a closer look at the programs in their middle schools. During the 1992–93 school year Michigan offered a $5.00 per pupil incentive in the School State Aid Act to those districts that would initiate, expand, or enhance foreign language programs in the elementary or middle school. For many school districts the most logical step was to expand at the middle level to create an additional step into the high school program. Most districts, however, lacked both a foreign language curriculum specialist and a clear concept of the appropriate way in which to initiate any middle-level program. In response to a flood of questions from local district administrators, and in the absence of foreign language staff, the Michigan Department of Education contracted privately. An independent foreign language

consultant conducted a series of statewide technical-assistance meetings and responded to telephone queries. For several months this part-time consultant assisted local districts. It was, however, only a temporary solution to the problem.

Unlike Michigan, Wisconsin has a full-time language specialist at the Department of Public Instruction. Wisconsin is scheduled to provide regular 7th- and 8th-grade foreign language instruction in each school district beginning with the 1994–95 school year. Wisconsin defines regular instruction in foreign languages as access to instruction in sufficient frequency and length to achieve the objectives and time allocations of a written sequential curriculum plan.

The WAFLT Task Force

In response to their state mandate, the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers (WAFLT 1992) formed a statewide task force on middle-school foreign languages. Its mission was to assist the development and improvement of foreign language instruction in public and private middle schools. While mandating programs may appear to be an exciting prospect, it opens the door to criticism and failure if the issues of funding, teacher preparation, program design, and articulation are not addressed. To ensure quality middle-level programs, the WAFLT Task Force defined the responsibilities of its mission as

1. Alerting and informing such groups as school boards, administrators, teachers, parents, and the general public of the mandate and the role of the task force
2. Working to ensure adequate funding for the mandated programs
3. Working toward teacher preparation that is adequate to support effective programs
4. Reviewing and disseminating information gathered nationally
5. Facilitating articulation across all levels of foreign language instruction

Membership on WAFLT's Task Force included K–16 teachers and building and district administrators. Initially, the Task Force developed a set of principles for foreign language study at the middle-school level. Then, having surveyed all Wisconsin middle schools, the Task Force documented the role of foreign languages in the middle school. The result was the publication of a detailed philosophy of middle-level foreign language learning that included a compendium of program models and sample lessons.

The Role of FLEX in the Middle School

As previously noted, middle-level language programs are typically either exploratory or the entry level for sequential study. More often they are exploratory. The Foreign Language Exploratory class is usually taught in grades 6–9 and lasts four to twelve weeks. FLEX classes are designed to give students an introduction to one or several foreign languages and their cultures (Raven 1983).

There are those who complain that the exploratory class misleads the students because it appears to be "all fun and games." Comments like this only serve to perpetuate the myth that learning a second language must be painful to be valuable, a myth that has caused mass exodus from elective language classes throughout the years. The attitude that second language learning must be a grueling endeavor is unacceptable at any level and unconscionable at the middle level.

Some teachers voice the regret that they cannot teach enough in an exploratory class to "prepare" students for further language study. Perhaps those who voice this complaint view language instruction as linear and grammar-based and ignore the purpose of the exploratory class. The only "preparation" that an exploratory experience needs to accomplish is a positive attitude toward learning language and the predisposition to engage in further study.

The middle-school concept and philosophy leave no space for the above complaints. An excellent resource on the issue is the recent publication (George et al. 1992) on middle schools by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). The publication notes that one of the resolutions of the National Middle School Association urges the preservation of exploratory classes in the curriculum, which provides moral support for FLEX classes. Exploratory classes offer students the opportunity to become aware of language as a vehicle for communication. They can whet the appetite of the learner for further study. Most U.S. students come from monolingual ethnocentric homes. Such students need exposure to other languages. Then they can realistically select a second language to study with the goal of proficiency in mind. Even students who come from homes where another language is used can benefit from the exposure to additional languages offered in FLEX classes.

Most practitioners agree that the purpose of the exploratory class is not one of language acquisition. A FLEX class does not provide enough time for second language acquisition to be a major goal.

If language acquisition is *not* the primary goal of a FLEX class, what is? The goals are modest; the expectation is reasonable: to create a positive attitude toward language learning, the language being exp ored, the people, and different cultures. (See Fischer 1991.) Some common broad goals of a FLEX class may be to

1. Create an awareness of language as a vehicle for communication
2. Introduce the functional purpose of language study
3. Present the sound systems of other languages
4. Instill an appreciation of other people and cultures
5. Provide motivation to continue learning another language

Even these broad goals may be difficult to achieve in the typical FLEX classroom. In many schools it is not unusual for all students (and in many cases even those labeled special education learners) to be enrolled in FLEX classes. Therefore, students in these classes typically represent a wide range of learning styles and linguistic abilities. The broad range of abilities presented in these classes offers a special challenge to those who teach them. Local school districts must provide the teachers with the necessary resources, including ongoing staff development, to enable them to be effective in this setting.

For most students the middle-school FLEX class is their first experience with another language. It forms their attitudes and is the basis on which they decide whether they want to pursue the study of this or any other language. For some students it will be their only experience with another language. In any case, it is incumbent on the teacher to make the FLEX experience positive, informative, and motivational.

Where should this FLEX class be placed in the curriculum? There is no specific grade level at which the FLEX program should occur. The earlier FLEX programs are offered, however, the earlier the opportunity to begin a sequence of language study. Learning a language is a skill-getting and skill-using process. It takes time! The earlier it begins, the greater the opportunity for the learner to acquire functional ability in the language.

While there is no specific grade level most appropriate to exploratory programs, it is clear that they should immediately precede and serve as a transition into the regular sequential language program. It makes little sense to whet the linguistic appetite and then ask the learner to wait a year or two to further enjoy the fruits of language acquisition.

The placement of an exploratory class at the beginning of the middle-level experience opens the door early and makes a longer language sequence possible. This permits instruction at the high school level to proceed at a faster pace and avoids compacting learning into a traditional four-year sequence. It is essential to understand when comparing the several types of programs or models that exploration is only one goal. The development of proficiency through a skills-based program is a different goal. These goals are not incompatible, just different.

While there are many questions about middle-school foreign language, successful programs do exist. These should serve as models for those still in the developmental stage. Perhaps the renewed focus on the middle level will lead to a more complete gathering of data such as that which was most recently done by ACTFL (Draper 1991) offering practitioners even more information about middle-level programs.

Middle-School Foreign Language: What Should It Be?

A middle-school program should be a viable and integral part of a districtwide program. Middle-level foreign language study offers an excellent and natural opportunity to meet the readiness needs and natural inquisitiveness of the early adolescent learner. The middle-level program must, however, be uniquely designed to serve the needs of the early adolescent.

Program Design

There are many characteristics typical of the early adolescent learner. Early adolescents are growing faster than at any time except for the first years of life. They are physically uncomfortable after sitting 20 to 25 minutes (Lounsbury 1982). They are largely concrete, not abstract, learners. They have an average attention span of

11.5 minutes. Middle-level programs and practitioners must consider these and all the physical, mental, social, and emotional characteristics of these children.

Articulation

As appropriate and effective middle-level programs are developed, they must be well articulated. Articulation can be viewed from two perspectives: horizontal and vertical. *Horizontal articulation* focuses on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and methods of assessment within a course level. It supposes a common curriculum that enables teachers from different schools or classrooms to address the same objectives and outcomes within a given level.

The focus of the discussion of articulation here, however, is on vertical articulation. *Vertical articulation* refers to the direction of the curriculum between levels. Regardless of the type of middle-school foreign language program in a school district, the issue of vertical articulation must not be ignored. Nonarticulated foreign language course offerings in a school district signal a poor foreign language program.

Discussing vertical articulation naturally gives rise to the question of what is meant by *level*. The traditional definition has been that one level is equal to one year of study in the high school; two years of middle school equal Level 1 in the high school. Lacking entrance or placement testing, one year of high school study has been seen historically as equivalent to one semester at the college or university. A level may refer to a year of study, but the specific delineation of the number of minutes or hours per day or week remains the responsibility of local districts or the state department of education.

The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (1986) have considerable value as a starting point for the discussion of articulation. The proficiency levels outlined in the guidelines do not refer to the number of years of study or to instructional time. The categories describe levels of performance the learner has attained regardless of the time spent studying the language.

If a FLEX class has been offered prior to middle school, then level 1 of a skills-based language sequence may be started in middle school. Subsequent levels follow through the middle grades into high school. Second language study then becomes a continuum not unlike other subject-matter areas currently viewed as part of the basic or core curriculum.

It is important to note that if a skills-based sequence begins in middle school, the instructional strategies used in these classes must still be developmentally appropriate to the middle-level learner. The course content will differ from that of FLEX; but the delivery system and strategies will not.

The middle-level program also may be a bridge from elementary to high school (Wilson 1988). This bridge needs to be designed to build onto the previous learning of the student. That learning should be a foundation for continued language development.

Elementary school programs vary greatly in type. Middle-level bridge courses must vary accordingly. For example, a middle-level bridge course must not invalidate the communicative skills acquired by the elementary learner where emphasis

has been primarily on the skills of listening and speaking. To ensure the continuity of the learner's language-skill development, certain adjustments may have to be made. (See Curtain & Pesola 1988.) Any discussion of articulation requires open, honest, and ongoing communication among the foreign language staff and others responsible for its development. Any time spent learning a second language at any previous level must be considered by the following level when designing the curriculum for that level. Exploratory, sequential, or FLES bridge: all require careful articulation and specific curriculum design.

Instructional Strategies

The current focus on outcome-based education gives foreign language educators the opportunity to look at a new paradigm for the foreign language curriculum. This new paradigm discards the old building-block approach. It favors an approach that views the curriculum as spiraling and recursive. It takes into account the research base of second language acquisition. It is open to the role that cognitive science plays in the building of sound and effective second language programs. The new curricular design incorporates the developmental level of the learner as well as the stages of language acquisition. It attempts to contextualize language and makes communication its focus. From this foundation an upwardly expanding, spiraling, and recursive curriculum leads to a new, different, and creative scope and sequence for second language study.

The development of this scope and sequence abandons the traditional focus on the textbook-driven curriculum. This change is particularly important in meeting the needs of the early adolescent learner. With the scope and sequence firmly in place, teachers then proceed to the selection of instructional materials to support it. Second language practitioners need to develop a cache of materials in great variety. They may include textbooks, computer software, realia, videos, manipulatives, and many other options.

Outcome-based education implies a vision of a creatively new and substantively different curriculum paradigm. Within this paradigm, middle-school language teachers must employ an effective and eclectic system for the delivery of instruction. It would be misleading to ignore the fact that many of the same challenges also present themselves in foreign language course settings at other levels. Good, sound educational practices that incorporate critical thinking and interdisciplinary study should be part of daily instruction in all language classrooms. It is especially imperative for middle-school classes, however, to use instructional strategies that are age-appropriate as well as developmentally appropriate.

All second language teachers, and particularly middle-school language teachers, should incorporate cooperative learning as well as large- and small-group work in the instructional process. Language learning is not a product, it is a process. In facilitating this process, teachers need to focus on monitoring student progress by using modeling and guided practice. They need to make use of all their teaching skills, a variety of resources, and authentic assessment of learning.

Staffing

Having faced the issues of program design, articulation, and instructional strategies, many school districts are still left with the problem of finding qualified teachers. Optimal conditions would require that the language teacher always possess a high level of proficiency in the language being taught. Schools and language teachers do not, however, always find themselves working under optimal conditions. In many states, middle-school certification allows individuals to teach any subject in the middle grades. Many times administrators will insist that teachers with minimal preparation teach the middle-school foreign language class.

Teachers of beginning-level skills-based and bridge courses must possess fluency in the language. In the exploratory class—although a high level of teacher fluency in the language is always preferable—the most important qualification for the teacher is a willingness to work with the students to create a positive attitude toward the study of another language.

Conclusion

Some day our schools may offer all students a second language experience beginning in the elementary grades. Middle-school language programs will then become a bridge from that elementary experience. This bridge will provide contiguous, continuous, meaningful, and developmentally appropriate linguistic experiences. These experiences will enable learners to move easily into more complex studies at the high school level.

We may see sequential skills-based classes become a standard part of the middle-school curriculum. By extending the sequence from middle school through high school, all students will be given the opportunity to gain some degree of proficiency and communicative competence in another language.

Until such time as these dreams become a reality, middle-level educators and language specialists must face realistically the role of the exploratory class for middle-level learners. There are those who would banish FLEX from the middle school. Indeed, it would be better to offer that minimal experience in the elementary grades. The vast majority of our schools, unfortunately, are unable to offer this option. Until such time as foreign languages are seen as a viable and integral part of the curriculum, administrators and teachers will continue to struggle with the limited options available to students in selecting or "electing" to study a foreign language in middle school.

Unlike their European counterparts, U.S. students are not surrounded by many languages. Our schools need to give students exposure to languages other than English. This exposure can be accommodated easily in the atmosphere of the middle school, where the basic philosophy is one that fosters an attitude of exploration. The middle school also may be the final opportunity for the teaming of students and teachers in interdisciplinary efforts that are a part of the fabric of language learning.

Administrators, parents, teachers, and students should share a common vision, definition, and expectation of the FLEX experience. The foreign language

exploratory class has a legitimate role to play in foreign language education. Until continuous K–12 foreign language programs become the norm in our U.S. school systems, we must improve the quality and preserve the integrity of any and all second language experiences that students encounter in our schools.

Middle-school foreign language, what is it? An ever-changing yet realistic part of many middle-level programs. It may be the bridge from an elementary school program to a high school program; one spoke in the wheel of the exploratory options for middle-level learners; or the entry level to a skills-based sequence.

Middle-school foreign language, what should it be? It should be the focus of our attention. It should be the place where early adolescent learners can explore and begin the process of second language acquisition. It should be there for *all* students, that they may grow to be individuals who are culturally and linguistically prepared to live in the twenty-first century.

Note

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10
Second Language Learning in a Social Context

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Foreign language educators, students, and parents always speak of "broadening one's horizons" by studying a foreign language, yet foreign language instructors are often faced with the pedagogical challenge of maintaining student interest, enhancing linguistic and cultural sophistication, and creating a setting for the reading and analysis of literary texts. The ultimate goal is to help the student to become as proficient as possible in all areas of foreign language study.

Within the confines of the classroom, it is often difficult to meet this challenge effectively. Typically, one way to facilitate the students' skill development is to encourage them to study abroad for a period of time in order to immerse themselves in the language and culture of the host country. In reality, this study-abroad experience is not feasible for all students; therefore, the foreign language instructor must explore and incorporate other resources that are available within the university and the community at large.

At Iowa State University of Science and Technology[1] (Ames, IA) and Santa Clara University (Santa Clara, CA), foreign language instructors have integrated into the curriculum the participation of native speakers from their communities in very creative and innovative ways that allow students to practice their language skills as well as heighten their cultural sensitivity and awareness. The techniques in experiential-based learning used by the foreign language instructors at Iowa State University and Santa Clara University have been applied to Spanish classes but the general principles can be applied to any foreign language class.

Santa Clara University is a Jesuit institution located in Northern California, in the ethnically diverse Santa Clara Valley, more commonly known today as Silicon Valley. The university, faced with the challenge of integrating the serious issues facing the community at large with the education of its students, looked for a way

to help the students really "understand" the meaning, value, and relationship of the issues that they were studying and to respond intelligently and constructively; "Tell me and I will forget. Show me and I will remember. Involve me and I will understand" (Chinese proverb). Therefore, in 1985, the university established a partnership between itself and the primarily Hispanic and Southeast Asian community of East San Jose, California.

This partnership, the Santa Clara University Eastside Project, services the marginalized segments of society—the homeless, the poor, the illiterate or undereducated, the elderly, and other underserved or dispossessed individuals. The purpose in establishing this partnership can be understood in relation to the Jesuit commitment to the service of faith and the promotion of justice. This commitment is key to understanding the underlying principle of Jesuit education, which is the "education of the whole person," intellectually, spiritually, and physically. The Eastside Project was launched as an experiment in co-curricular, field-experience learning, not as an act of charity.

Two key goals of the Project were clearly articulated and reiterated the fundamentals of Jesuit education: (1) to bring the life experiences of the diverse members of society into the consciousness of students and faculty, listening and learning from each other, and (2) to promote interaction between the university and the community on the premise that "we not only increase the likelihood of our being moved; we also run the risks that being moved entails. For we are moved somewhere, and that somewhere is further into life, closer to those with whom we live."[2] Participation in the project is meant to be a mutually beneficial educational experience for the students and for the persons being served. It can be seen as a pedagogical tool that links the classroom with real-life experience.

The faculty in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures immediately saw a direct application of the Eastside Project in the classroom and proceeded to incorporate active learning into the existing curriculum of the diverse Spanish language, culture, and literature courses. For example, in the foreign language curriculum at the intermediate level of language instruction, students are often required to interview, in Spanish, Spanish-speaking members of a particular service agency served by the project and to keep a regular journal (in Spanish) of their experiences, which they compose at the end of each exchange. Initially, students are provided with a set of thought-provoking questions meant to serve as a guide as they begin to participate in the interview and journal-writing activities.

The journal has proven to be a very valuable reflective tool that gives each student the opportunity to focus on what is happening around him or her, to think about the experiences (positive or negative), and to ponder their meaning. The journal entries might consist of autobiographical data, personal student reflections or reactions to native-informant conversations, commentaries on sociopolitical events in the native speaker's land of origin, linguistic barriers, and discrimination resulting from stereotypical views of their culture.

The professor and the students use the journal entries as a basis for small-group discussions or individual conferences. As the term progresses and the students' contact with the native informants increases, not only do journal entries become more complex and developed, but so too do the friendships they have established with the informants. Many students are "adopted" by their new friends, and these relationships last far beyond the scope of the class project.

As students reach the more advanced language classes, typically the third year, the focus of the class generally is on continued study of and practice in complex grammatical structures. This level also includes reading and analysis of progressively more difficult literary texts. Many students who enroll in these classes actually begin to regress in their oral/aural skills; their skills in literary analysis do improve, but they often find themselves tied to the text and cannot comprehend actively or internalize what they have read and discussed in class. The students begin to rely too heavily on the text and consequently begin to doubt their ability to speak in the target language. The text has inhibited their speaking ability, thus impeding the students' linguistic development in a social context. The students fear that they will not be well prepared to survive for any time in a situation where the target language is spoken. The language professor is faced with the challenge of helping the student relate the text—and the social, moral, and ethical issues which it raises—to personal experiences. The student whose contact with the Hispanic community has been limited to textual material and class discussion may not be able to discover the connection between the literary and socially active world.

Third-year language courses use texts that illustrate not only the struggles of Hispanic peoples but also the universality of human experience. After reading and discussing a variety of these texts, mainly contemporary Latin American short stories, the students are then assigned a term project that involves interviewing, in Spanish, a person of Hispanic origin and recording the individual's oral history on paper. The students spend a minimum of twenty hours, two hours per week for ten weeks, with the native informant, whom they have met through the Eastside Project. The students are paired with Hispanic senior citizens and conduct their interviews at the Eastside Senior Day Center. The interviews conducted at this site have been particularly successful for students and informants alike, especially because the informants draw on personal experiences that transcend not only cultures but also decades.

The students are not sent to their interview site without adequate preparation. Prior to the first interview with their informant, the students work in groups to formulate questions designed to establish a rapport. The students are not permitted to tape-record the informant, because many informants would view a tape recorder as threatening, and they might not be as willing to share openly with the student. In addition, the use of a tape recorder would inhibit the conversational-style interview the student is trying to conduct, and it could also weaken the student's aural comprehension in that the student might rely too heavily on a second chance to listen to the interview. The student must begin to depend on his or her ability to communicate at all levels, that is, not only to listen to the native informant but also to engage in a meaningful dialogue.

Since many of the informants have left their native countries for reasons of political persecution and have come to the United States for political asylum, the students are cautioned to avoid frightening or offending them with questions that might appear to be intrusive. The students have reported that usually after the first or second visit they are able to obtain the answers to many basic biographical questions without ever having to ask the question because the native informants are so eager to tell their stories. Questions such as the following enable the student and the informant to find a common point of reference—at some point in their lives they each have been (or presently are) learners:

¿Cuál fue su primera reacción al encontrarse en un país donde no hablaba el idioma?

¿Qué es lo que más echaba de menos de su país?

¿Cuáles son las costumbres o tradiciones que trajo de su país?

¿Qué es lo que le impresionó más de los Estados Unidos?

¿Cuáles son algunas diferencias que ha notado entre su cultura y la cultura angloamericana?

The informants' responses help the student to realize that when learning *how* to communicate in a new language, the learner, whether Anglo or Hispanic, is confronted by a task that is not easily separable from other psychological and social experiences. The sharing and negotiating of potential meanings in a new language implies the use and the refinement of perceptions and concepts. Furthermore, learning the conventions governing communication within a new social group involves the refinement and use of the social roles and the social identity expected by that group and its members.

Learning to communicate in a second language is just as much a process of socialization as it is in a first language. As eager as many of the senior citizens are to share their experiences with another person, particularly a young person, the students must be aware of the socially and culturally appropriate ways of gaining the informant's trust. The students are discouraged from asking questions dealing with sensitive issues until the informant readily volunteers a willingness to approach these issues. As in the case of biographical information, the students have found that as they and their informants become more familiar with one another, it is the informant who initiates the discussion of the choice of topics.

As the students become more involved in their oral history project, they begin to notice a direct correlation between the informants' "memories" and the themes they have studied in their literature assignments. Integration of cross-cultural issues and personal feelings of uneasiness or shame in dealing firsthand with the impoverished and marginalized of an otherwise "comfortable" environment in the Silicon Valley are often topics of discussion in Spanish during classroom sessions. The poignancy of many of Juan Rulfo's or Gabriel García Márquez's short stories is brought to life and openly discussed on many occasions due to the sociopolitical issues their works illustrate and the parallels engendered in the similar real-life personal accounts of community members. The characters are no longer fictionalized but personal acquaintances and friends with very real names and faces living in the same geographic area as the students.

In advanced courses such as Applied Linguistics and Hispanic Dialectology, a field-based learning approach is obviously of great benefit to both student and instructor alike. Although nuances of pronunciation and intonation can be duplicated on a tape recorder, the opportunity to also see the gestures that a person uses when speaking heightens the students' awareness that there are other elements besides the voice that contribute to communication.

At Iowa State University, advanced students studying Hispanic dialectology were able to experience firsthand the true diversity of spoken Spanish through the use of oral dialect samples. Native speakers from various countries were contacted

for the purpose of recording their speech to be used at a later date in the classroom.[3] During the recording sessions, students were asked to read a passage from a literary work representative of their country. This produced a carefully controlled speech sample, since the student was aware that the tape would be used for a future audience. A sample of natural speech was also obtained by asking the student to relate one of the following topics: (1) tell about the happiest or saddest day of your life, or (2) tell about an experience in which you nearly died. Research has proven that when a speaker is asked to relate an emotional tale, the focus of their attention is not on the delivery of the story but rather on the content and the emotion that it invokes.[4] These topics were very effective in eliciting the desired type of speech. Nearly all students showed varying degrees of emotion while telling their story, which produced a much more natural speech sample than the reading sample.

As the various dialect areas came under study in class, the recorded samples were used to supplement the written examples of the dialects. Students were given a transcript of the reading portion and were asked to follow along as the tape was played. The various phonological, syntactical, morphological, and lexical characteristics of the dialect had previously been studied, and therefore the students were aware of what they should expect to hear. Students were asked to indicate on their text any of the typical features (all phonological in the reading portion) that they might detect. After listening to the tape twice, the class discussed, as a group, the salient features that they had heard. In order to guide the students, the instructor asked the following questions:

> Were the features that you detected typical of that particular dialect?
>
> Was the speaker consistent in producing these sounds?
>
> How did this speaker compare with others of the same dialect group?
>
> Could any of the differences be due to the speaker's idiolect?

After the reading sample had been analyzed, a similar procedure was used to analyze the natural speech sample. The second discussion typically yielded a greater wealth of dialect variations due to its informal nature.

Many native speakers expressed a strong interest in visiting the class in order to demonstrate their dialect in person. The visits were scheduled once the class had thoroughly studied two to three different dialects. On the day of the visits, the native speakers were asked not to disclose which dialect they represented, nor to make direct references to their country of birth so that the students could use their newly acquired knowledge of dialects to determine which dialect was being spoken. The accuracy rate was extremely high. Once the class reached a consensus on the dialect, the students were asked to produce a list of the features they had used to identify the dialect. Further discussions followed as students asked about the speech patterns in the native region of the visitor. Since it was not unusual to have several speakers from the same country, for example, Colombia, where there are several very distinct dialect areas, students not only heard the various dialects but also heard how speakers from one area perceive speakers from another. Obviously, as occurs in every country where a variety of dialects are spoken, there are very strong biases about people due to the type of language that they speak. Discussions

progressed from the purely linguistic to the sociolinguistic, for example, the students explored the similarities and differences of stereotypes in various Spanish-speaking countries.

As an integral part of this course, students were required to complete a semester project that would be an in-depth case study of a particular native speaker's dialect. For this project the students were to research a specific aspect of the dialect, such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon. In addition, the mechanics of their field research would also provide them with the opportunity for closer interaction with native speakers.[5]

As part of this project, students were required to present their findings to the class. This presentation included a brief taped segment of the interview with the native speaker, accompanied by a transcript. In this manner, all members of the class were able to hear the dialect variations under study. The use of native speakers in the Hispanic Dialectology course was an essential element that allowed students to understand fully and appreciate the many differences in the Spanish language.

Using native speakers in the Advanced Spanish Conversation classroom creates an atmosphere that enhances the students' interest. The classroom becomes animated and revitalized through the ongoing conversational and cultural exchange.

At Iowa State University, a group of native Spanish speakers was invited to come to the third-year conversation classes to act as "guest speakers." A week before their visit, each guest was provided with a basic outline of suggested topics from which they could develop their talk, for example: (1) describe your family, interests, hobbies, (2) share your reasons for studying in or immigrating to the United States, (3) describe your first impressions of this country, (4) compare your hometown with your current place of residence, (5) describe your experiences learning English as a second language, and (6) offer suggestions to students about improving their Spanish speaking skills.

Each native speaker met with the instructor several days before visiting the class so that the instructor could be informed about the topic areas that the native speaker had selected. More importantly, this meeting provided the native speakers with the opportunity to express any concerns they might have about the type of questions that the students might raise. Some native speakers preferred to avoid discussing certain cultural, political, or personal issues for a variety of reasons. With this information, the instructor could more readily avoid an embarrassing situation in the classroom.

The students were prepared for the native speakers' visits in very much the same manner as were the native speakers. Each student was given a copy of the topic outline that the native speakers had received. In addition, the following points were reviewed to facilitate the conversational exchange: (1) the use of Spanish interrogatives, (2) types of verbs most likely to be used in the presentations, and (3) the formulation of appropriately phrased questions. The students then rehearsed questions with one another in class.

On the day of the native speakers' visit, the class was divided into five groups of four or five students each. Each guest speaker was assigned to a group. In order to promote a relaxed atmosphere for an exchange of ideas, students were encouraged to ask questions freely, to change the subject at any time, if they so desired, or to let the conversation take its natural course. While the groups talked, the

instructor circulated among them, spending a few minutes at a time with each, answering questions if they were asked, while trying to remain as unobtrusive as possible. After approximately fifteen minutes, the guest speakers were asked to switch to another group and repeat the process. Each speaker spoke with three groups during the ninety-minute class. Toward the end of the session, the class reconvened as one large group and spent fifteen minutes "reviewing" what was learned about each speaker, highlighting the information the students had found most interesting.

For a number of the students in the class, this informal conversational exchange with a native Spanish speaker was a new experience and one that facilitated positive learner attitudes toward the native speakers and their culture. The students not only practiced their aural/oral skills, but they were also exposed to regionalisms in the form of various accents and diverse vocabulary. They learned about various Spanish-speaking countries such as Argentina, Puerto Rico, Mexico, and Peru. Students acquired a new awareness of the challenges that immigrants encounter as they try to adapt to a different culture, while possessing limited skills in the language of the host country.

Last year, a collaborative project was initiated between Iowa State University and Santa Clara University in an effort to share the positive results of the respective experiential-based language-learning techniques and to develop new strategies to stimulate the language students. The joint project involved students enrolled in a third-year advanced composition class at Iowa State University and native Spanish speakers enrolled in upper-division literature courses at Santa Clara University.[6] The premise of the project was quite simple: students from Iowa State would be given an assignment to write a letter to a student at Santa Clara University. The letters were sent to the preselected students at Santa Clara University in care of the instructor at the university address.[7] For the Iowa students (and instructor), the goal of the project was twofold: (1) to provide another means of improving writing skills and increasing interest in the writing process, and (2) to give the Iowa student the opportunity to engage in a firsthand exchange with a student from a Hispanic group that is not heavily represented in the Midwest (Central Americans, largely political refugees, and Mexican-Americans).

For the California students, the assignment gave them the opportunity to correspond with another person whose background and culture are very different from their own, to learn about Midwestern culture, and to share their Hispanic heritage with another person.

The format and content of each student's letter would follow certain stylistic and thematic guidelines and in the case of the Iowa students, the letter would be corrected and graded as any other written assignment before being mailed to California. Students at both universities were asked to describe themselves, their university, their hometown, and their course of study or area of specialization. Once the initial exchange took place, the responsibility of continuing the relationship was left to the students. Ideally, the exchange of letters was meant to lead to an ongoing relationship between the correspondents. The majority of the students at both universities did continue to correspond with their pen-pals.

As the research has shown, when such cultural exchanges do take place, the increased interest and motivation figure prominently in the students' continued success in the learning of a second language.[8] More importantly, friendships begun

in letters may ultimately lead to travel on the part of the participants, something foreign educators are continually striving to promote.

The efforts at Iowa State University and Santa Clara University to incorporate experience-based learning into the foreign language curriculum have been far-reaching for students and faculty alike. The faculty members involved have developed new teaching strategies and have explored new topics or approaches for research. In addition, the positive results of experience-based techniques have enhanced the spirit of interdepartmental/intercollegiate communication at all levels. Yet the most important measure of success is the fact that the students, the faculty, and the native speakers are working together to further their understanding of each other's culture, to break down stereotypes, and to build cultural bridges through an exchange of ideas, experiences, and friendships.

Notes

1. The university administration is actively promoting the internationalization of the curriculum. The Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, due to the nature of its course offerings, is in an excellent position to facilitate this process of integration.
2. "Santa Clara University's Eastside Project: Bridging the Chasm," p. 2. Presentation given by Stephen A. Privett, S.J., Gerdenio M. Manuel, S.J., Daniel V. Germann, S.J., and Peter Miron-Conk at Assembly of Jesuits in Higher Education, June 6, 1989, Washington, D.C.
3. At Iowa State University there is a large contingent of native Spanish-speaking students. The majority of these students are specializing in the areas of science and engineering and therefore removed from the humanities. Language instructors can easily contact these students by (1) advertising in the student newspaper, (2) contacting the English as a Second Language Program, and (3) interdepartmental communication at the faculty level.
4. For an in-depth study on the connection between emotion and the storytelling experience, see M. Eisenstein and R. J. Starbuck, "The Effect of Emotional Investment in L2 Production" in Gass et al., eds., *Variation in Second Language Acquisition, Volume II: Psycholinguistic Issues*, Clevedon, Eng.: Newbury House, 1989.
5. Each student was required to find a native speaker who was willing to participate in the research project. Some of the students selected friends or classmates who were native speakers. Other students called upon the guest speakers. In many cases, the area that the student initially chose to study changed slightly if the students were unable to find a native informant who fit the initial profile. For example, code switching was selected by one student because her informant was a balanced bilingual who had spent the last ten years in the United States and was married to an American, who was also bilingual.
6. The number of students involved in the project at Iowa State was 18, the number at Santa Clara was 10 (several students volunteered to answer more than one letter). Since this was an experimental assignment, the instructors chose to keep the number of participants relatively low for logistical reasons. If the project proved to be a success, it was decided that it would be expanded to include more students in subsequent courses.
7. For language professors who have professional or personal contacts abroad, this project can easily be expanded to include students in Spanish-speaking countries.
8. For research studies supporting this theory, see N. Labrie and R. Clement, "Ethnolinguistic Vitality, Self-Confidence and Second Language Proficiency: An Investigation," *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 7,4 (1972): 269–83; and R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert, *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1986.

11
Reading Comprehension Assessment Measures:
The Recall Protocol Revisited

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Introduction: The Primacy of Assessment

Despite the rapid spread of oral media, the acquisition of literacy skills remains paramount for learners of second and foreign languages all over the world. Bernhardt (1991) notes that interest in second language literacy skills has grown in the last decade for sociopolitical, cognitive, and pedagogical reasons.

Any discussion about reading comprehension would not be complete without a serious consideration of reading comprehension *assessment*. At present, reading comprehension assessment is probably one of the most important areas in second language reading research. Unless reliable and valid measures of comprehension are developed, it is safe to argue along with Bernhardt (1991) that "the entire area of reading research will remain uncertain" (p. 233).

Assessment is a necessary component of effective instruction that helps us to answer many questions about instructional effectiveness. Comprehension assessment that seeks to support instructional decision making must consider how the various facets of reading—text-driven and knowledge-driven—may be affecting comprehension performance. Bernhardt (1984) argues that generic tests that do not consider reader background knowledge may be biased and may, therefore, be invalid because they fail to measure reading ability accurately.

Since our goal is to enable our students to comprehend a variety of texts independently, we need to answer how well they are achieving this goal, and further, how we can help them comprehend better. Assessment must tell us about comprehension as a product and also as a process, since a primary goal of assessment is to inform and guide instruction.

One important focus of comprehension assessment should be to determine under which instructional conditions a learner comprehends best. Assessment that seeks to answer this question is referred to as *dynamic assessment* and sometimes

interactive assessment (Campione & Brown 1985). As instructors interact with students and texts and model strategic reading processes, they look for patterns in how students construct meaning. This procedure, in turn, informs and shapes decisions about materials, tasks, pacing, and feedback for future lessons.

Although literacy assessment is currently being reconceptualized and its techniques are undergoing change, reading programs have been reluctant to examine traditional assessment methods that remain dominant throughout the United States and in many parts of the world that have been influenced by U.S. practices. Many reading programs rely exclusively on one standardized reading test not only to place and diagnose incoming students but also to evaluate program effectiveness (Wood 1989).

To remedy the situation, reading professionals have continuously searched for better reading comprehension assessment measures. Alternative approaches to assessment address the complexities of the learning process. Reading specialists are faced with the enormous task of conceptualizing a comprehensive assessment model that (1) reflects current reading research and theory, (2) is appropriate to the philosophy and goals of their programs, and (3) is unique to the characteristics of their students.

Reading Comprehension Research

Theoretical and empirical interest in reading comprehension is a rather recent phenomenon. There was little systematic research on reading comprehension before the 1960s, with books of the time not even mentioning reading comprehension. In the 1970s, things changed. Rothkopf (1972), for example, insisted that research on reading should emphasize comprehension and its most effective facilitation. Venezky (1984) notes that comprehension usually meant oral reading, and comprehension of a given text was simply assumed if a reader's "pronunciation was correct and natural" (p. 13). The importance of comprehension became more salient with the advent of the testing movement because of its interest in the assessment of comprehension ability. Greater interest in language comprehension, moreover, was partially a result of developments in the disciplines of human factors research, computer science, and linguistics. These developments resulted in a shift in psychology from behaviorist to an information-processing or cognitive orientation. As a consequence, constructs from computer science (such as knowledge representation, buffers and working memory, and parallel, serial, and interactive processes) as well as constructs from linguistics (such as discourse structures, integration, and inferencing) have become part of the theoretically oriented field of reading comprehension research (Ashcraft 1989).

In sum, reading comprehension theory and research have made tremendous strides over the past three decades—from a narrow conceptualization of reading as a process of mastering a number of hierarchically ordered subskills and one that acknowledges the primary role of the author as the creator of meaning, to a broader, more reader-based conceptualization of reading as the interaction among reader, author, and text. Notions about the residence of the meaning (with the author, with the text, with the interaction among reader, author, and text) have changed over

the period, as has the kind of knowledge thought important in the act of reading (declarative or procedural).

The Purposes of Reading Assessment

Cronbach (1984) defines tests as "systematic procedures for observing behavior and describing it with the aid of numerical scales or fixed categories" (Cronbach 1984: 26). On the basis of information from the observed performance on a test, inferences are made about the more general underlying competence.

In the language context, Weir (1990) notes that in testing language ability, we are evaluating samples of performance in certain specific contexts of use, created under particular test constraints, for what they can tell us about a person's communicative capacity or language ability.

Cross and Paris (1987) discuss three major purposes for reading assessment: sorting, diagnosing, and evaluating. Reading tests are used to *sort* students by arranging them along a continuum from highest to lowest scores. Sorting is used to predict learners' academic success or to indicate mastery of an instructional program. This type of measurement also functions as a *formative* measure of assessment. It provides information that directs subsequent teaching–learning activity. Formative testing aids in decision making on how to shape instruction. It gives information that helps the instructor.

The second purpose of assessment, *diagnosing individuals' reading problems*, calls for gathering information about a particular student's strategies and processes. The diagnostic findings should be used to make informed decisions about individuals, not decisions about group changes. Diagnostic testing provides information about intrapersonal factors that will influence the teaching–learning process for that individual.

The final purpose of assessment, *evaluation*, calls for determining whether a particular experimental treatment or instructional program has had an effect on dependent variables such as improved reading performance.

The Nature of Reading Comprehension

Psychometric vs. Cognitive Approaches

Despite the fact that psychologists, educators, and reading specialists have been concerned with research, evaluation, and training in reading comprehension for several decades, the measures and analyses of reading comprehension are still being debated.

Throughout the years, various assessment methods have served as comprehension measures. Recent research from two distantly related enterprises, cognitive science and research on teaching, has encouraged reading educators to rethink prevailing constructs about reading and how they affect reading comprehension.

The Psychometric Approach. 'Most of the current methods are grounded in the psychometric paradigm of assessment. Recently, new ideas in comprehension testing have been advanced from information-processing and interactive learning

perspectives. What distinguishes psychometric from cognitive approaches is the emphasis of psychometrics on products or factors, rather than processes, and its emphasis on comparison and description of methods, rather than on experimentation. Psychometric measures tell us if students master the designated instructional objectives by indicating whether they get an item right or wrong. Assessment procedures congruent with cognitive psychology may shed light on why learners are able or unable to master their designated instructional objectives. It is obvious that these assessment procedures go beyond the surface level of knowledge and assess how deeply learners have organized knowledge or to what extent the students have linked concepts with each other.

The Cognitive Approach. A central premise of cognitive psychology is that comprehension is a constructive process involving information from the environment and from semantic memory (Doyle 1983). Humans respond to an external stimulus based on the stimulus itself and upon past experience retrieved from long-term memory that is relevant to the stimulus.

Current Approaches. Reading is a far more complex process than had been envisioned by early reading researchers; above all, it is not a set of skills to be mastered. In the traditional view, readers are passive recipients of the information in the text. Meaning resides in the text itself, and the goal of the reader is to reproduce that meaning.

Current research in text processing is predicated on the idea that comprehension is an active process of construction rather than simple information reception. Cognitive approaches to reading comprehension generally recognize that meaning does not rest with the text. Instead, they emphasize the interactive nature of reading (Rumelhart & Ortony 1977) and the constructive nature of comprehension (R. Anderson et al. 1977). Reading is a constructive process that combines individual units to form new configurations; that is, there is some type of cognitive constructive activity involved in the process of reading. The work of this constructive activity is to build an information model that comprises all the textual information. Generally, the reader attempts to construct a representation that resembles closely the structure that the author originally intended.

Background Knowledge and Reading Comprehension

All readers, both novices and experts, use their existing knowledge and a range of cues from the text and the situational context in which reading occurs to build, or construct, a model of meaning from the text. The knowledge that readers bring to the text is paramount. Across all levels of age and ability, readers use their existing knowledge as a filter to interpret and construct meaning for a given text. They also use this knowledge to determine importance, to draw inference, to elaborate text, and to monitor comprehension.

In sum, skilled readers use their stores of existing knowledge as well as a number of flexible strategies to construct a mental model of the text. They monitor their ongoing comprehension and change strategies when comprehension breaks down. They adjust their strategy selection and their metacognitive

awareness to accommodate their level of domain-specific knowledge (Alexander & Judy 1988).

Conventional Measures of Reading Comprehension

In order to define the construct of reading comprehension, the focus in many recent studies into reading has moved away from product to investigating the reading process (Farr et al. 1990). The change in our thinking about how the printed word is understood, however, has not been accompanied by a change in the practices we use to measure that understanding. Cognitively oriented research suggests that we reconceptualize the reading process and comprehension assessment.

Like reading comprehension, reading comprehension assessment is a complex process involving a variety of measures. Comprehension assessment tools range from the unstructured and spontaneous gathering of information during instruction to structured tests with specifically defined outcomes and directions for administration and scoring. In the middle of the continuum are "semistructured measures, informal but planned assessments that require more input and interpretation from the teacher and/or provide greater latitude in student response" (Valencia et al. 1990: 134).

Multiple Choice

Although the multiple-choice test format is one of the most frequently used test formats (Anderson et al. 1991), it is frequently criticized because the correct answer can often be identified "without actually understanding the text and without any judgmental activity in selecting the correct response" (Klein-Braley 1985). According to Klein-Braley (1985, 1991) the process of reaching the correct answer on a reading comprehension test might not reflect the processes involved in actual reading.

Henning (1987) asserts that multiple-choice test items open the way to guessing and can often be answered without reference to the reading passage. Further, because of the difficulty involved in producing multiple-choice questions that assess whether the student is able to integrate passage information, this test mode often taps knowledge at the discrete-point level. Thus, the potential for assessing deeper meaning that the reader has gleaned from the text is sacrificed.

Short-Answer Questions

Weir (1990) argues that the short-answer technique is extremely useful for testing both reading and listening comprehension. The format allows the student some freedom of expression. Answering short-answer questions involves inference making, comparison, recognition of a sequence, and establishing the main idea of a text, which require relating sentences with other items that may be some distance away. The disadvantage is that it requires the reader to write, and this is of some concern because it may interfere with the measurement of the intended construct.

Cloze

Although seldom used in foreign language tests of reading comprehension, the cloze procedure is considered by many as a valid and uniform measure of reading comprehension. Strong claims have been made for the value of the cloze procedure. It is sometimes contended that a well-designed cloze test measures not only language skills at a relatively low level (e.g., command of vocabulary, grammar, idioms), but also higher-order skills such as awareness of intersentential relationships and global reading comprehension.[1]

Swaffar et al. (1991) argue that the cloze procedure, while a product-oriented test, be considered more text-based than either true–false or multiple-choice answers. Recently, Bachman (1990) argues that although cloze procedures do not produce perfect tests of overall language proficiency, they do hold potential for measuring aspects of students' written *grammatical competence*, consisting of "knowledge of syntax, vocabulary, morphology, and phonology/graphology, and *textual competence*, knowledge of the cohesive and rhetorical properties of text" (pp. 87–88). More recently, Oller (1992) argues that the value of pragmatic testing techniques is that they are based on the relatively recent theoretical linguistic constructs of *text linguistics, discourse analysis,* and *pragmatics.*

Some researchers, however (e.g., Carroll 1976; Lado 1986), have questioned the notion that successful performance on cloze tests requires the ability to interpret global text meanings, the implication being that cloze items are essentially sentence-bound. Other researchers have tried to define the possible limit of the range of a cloze task to 5–10 words on either side of the blank (Kamil et al. 1986). If such an estimate were to be found valid, it would mean that cloze tasks are often insensitive to discourse constraints across sentence boundaries.[2]

Other opponents have pointed to the failure of cloze tests to correspond favorably with a test of rhetorical structure (Kintsch & Yabrough 1982) and the fact that they are lacking in validity as tests of text-based comprehension (Farhady 1983). In summary, cloze techniques produce tests that can measure, with some degree of accuracy, aspects of the students' written grammatical and textual competence. The accuracy of measurement and specific traits measured may depend on how deletions are made and the manner of students' response.

The Recall Protocol

Currently, there is almost a consensus in the L1 and L2 reading research communities that the recall of text is the best type of performance from which we can infer what the process of comprehension is. The recall protocol, in particular, is an assessment instrument in which readers are asked to read a short passage and to write, in their native language, everything they can remember about it. Analyzing a written recall of a text by a reader is a method that can give the researcher a fair approximation of the way the text material has been processed. Hayes (1989) has described protocol analysis as "cognitive psychology's most powerful tool for tracking psychological processes" (p. 69). Bernhardt (1991) argues that this tracking capability allows the researcher or the teacher to detect whether any lack of

grammar "is interfering with the communication between the reader and text, while not focusing a reader's attention on linguistic elements in the text" (p. 200). Burton et al. (1981) explain that recall is a valid measure of reading comprehension because "under normal conditions reading is considered a semantic processing task" (p. 158). This is certainly in keeping with a cognitive approach to learning in which memorization and imitation are seen as less indicative of learning than description, explanation, understanding, and elaboration.

First- and second-language research has shown that free recall not only provides more valid information than any type of structured questioning but also is "the most straightforward assessment of text–reader interaction" (Johnston 1983: 54). Recall, according to Bernhardt (1983), reveals "something about the organization of stored information, about some of the retrieval strategies used by readers, and reveals the method of reconstruction which [the reader] employs to encode information in a text" (Bernhardt 1983: 31).

Moreover, Bernhardt (1991) argues that the recall protocol is a valid measure of reading comprehension insofar as it conforms to current L2 reading research-driven theories, such as the Constructivist Reading Model. Further, she contends that the recall protocol avoids the drawbacks associated with multiple-choice test items because it provides no leading information or cues pertaining to passage content and requires the reader to integrate the components of the reading passage well enough to be able to recall it in a logical and coherent manner. More importantly, the recall protocol provides considerable descriptive data about the way the subject has processed and stored the text in memory, which experimenter-directed tests rarely expose. Put differently, the recall protocol allows misunderstandings or gaps in comprehension to surface. Recall protocols can add immeasurably to our understanding of readers' comprehension "because it allows us to get a view of the quantity, quality, and organization of information gleaned during reading" (Winograd et al. 1989: 123). Based on these findings, most researchers suggest that teachers should make greater use of recall protocols.

Criticism of the Recall Protocol as a Measure of Reading Comprehension

Several L1 and L2 reading specialists and educators (Maria 1990; Page 1990; Swaffar et al. 1991) have voiced criticisms of the recall protocol as a proficiency test. Reasons for criticism include (1) its inappropriateness in ESL settings, (2) its absence of objective weighting, (3) the fact that it is a time-consuming process, (4) its focus on holistic comprehension, (5) its failure to delineate the processes and skills involved, especially the effect of memory.

Swaffar et al. (1991) object to the absence of a more "objective" weighting and analyzing system. More importantly, they consider the measure questionable due to the absence of a "ranking system . . . that accounts for reader schemata" (p. 164). Instead, they suggest holistic alternatives to the recall protocol that include procedural matrices, idea maps, and story grammars.

Another problem with recalling or retelling to assess comprehension is that recall is not exactly the same as comprehension. A reader may understand an idea

in the text but not remember it and fail to include it in the recall. Some readers may have memory problems. Page (1990) argues that the recall of a text cannot be considered as a safe indicator of what has really been comprehended by the subject when reading a text. First, we must assume that many elements of textual information that are recalled have been adequately comprehended, even if we note important changes when we compare the original text with the one we read in the recall. Many cases of such changes may be considered as inferences (Fincher-Keifer 1992), but we can hardly consider every case of inference as an adequate comprehension of the text. We are also obliged to assume that every element of textual information that is missing in the recall has not been comprehended by the reader. Since many of those elements of information might have been comprehended but forgotten by the subject, we cannot make this assumption.

Another problem in using recall is that some readers may have difficulty in expressing their ideas. Thus, a poor recall protocol may not be due to a lack of comprehension. Another problem with recalls is that they are difficult to score. Researchers use a text analysis system to divide a text into idea units and assign them to a particular level of importance. They score recalls by determining the number of text ideas they contain, giving more weight to ideas with higher levels of importance. According to Maria (1990), there are two problems with this approach. First, because recalls are never in the same words as the text, deciding whether a particular idea in the recall matches an idea in the text is often difficult. Second, when researchers score recalls, there are always two independent scorers in order to be sure the scoring is consistent. It is unlikely that teachers would be able to get other teachers to help them with such a time-consuming process.

Creating a Recall Protocol Evaluation Instrument and Scoring Template

The means of creating a text-based instrument for evaluating recall are varied and complicated. Logical structures of text, propositions or idea units, order of presentation, and cohesion have all been utilized in a variety of studies. For an analysis of general recall that does not attempt to analyze the effects of discourse properties (redundancy, anaphora, cohesion, etc.), the most common means of creating an instrument for evaluating a free recall protocol is to weight all possible propositions in a text according to how crucial each one is for conveying the main points of the text.[3]

Pellegrino and Hubert (1982) note that in the 1970s, free-recall, the primary method for studying recall, gained greater prominence with Johnson's (1970) introduction of the notion of the importance of individual propositions. Meyer (1974) contends that Johnson's propositional scale constitutes a major turning point in the way recall has been evaluated. His propositional weighting has become a generally accepted approach to evaluating recall.[4]

Meyer (1974) recommends a scale from 1 to 7. Individual protocols are searched for each identified proposition and awarded points commensurate with the weights of any valid propositions that are found in the reader's recall. In Meyer's hierarchical content-structure analysis (Meyer & Freedle 1984), an idea unit or

proposition is a meaning unit that always consists of a predicate (relation) and one or more *arguments*, that is, concepts connected to each other by the relation. Scoring the recall protocol involves analyzing each passage or text into a set of idea units. Each idea unit consists of a single clause (main or subordinate, including adverbial and relative clauses). Each infinitival construction, nominalized verb, gerundive, or phrase is also identified as a separate idea unit. In addition, optional or heavy prepositional phrases are also designated as separate idea units. Idea units are organized into a hierarchy (Meyer & Freedle 1984). Each idea unit is determined to be a top-, high-, mid-, or low-level idea unit according to the following criteria:

1. Top-level: Represents the main ideas being compared or contrasted or the main ideas being collectively described
2. High-level: Represents major ideas or main topics in the passage
3. Mid-level: Represents minor ideas or subtopics in the passage
4. Low-level: Represents minor detail in the passage

Rationale for a Qualitative Analysis of the Recall

The various quantitative scoring methods are not helpful in indicating what parts of the text are particularly problematic for students.[5] It is only through qualitative analysis that the teacher or researcher can begin to discover what is impairing students' comprehension processing and why. This information may ultimately be of more value to the classroom teacher, because it may suggest ways to adjust instruction in order to promote better reading comprehension.

To arrive at this kind of deeper information, several alternative analysis procedures of a more qualitative nature have been suggested both in L1 and L2 contexts. The tradeoff is that the objectivity obtained by the binary scoring system will be lost. At the same time, important and deeper insights into the processes and constructive activities involved in reading will be gained (Berkemeyer 1989).

A useful tool for such analysis is Bernhardt's (1983) model of L2 text comprehension. The model elucidates the kinds of errors students are making. As a qualitative model, it emphasizes the process of comprehension and reveals the "patterns of intrusions, distortions, and omissions which provide much valuable information for understanding the comprehension process" (Berkemeyer 1989: 132). Unlike Meyer's scoring system, Bernhardt's model focuses on the connected interactions between various textual features and influences external to the text.

Rationale for Using a Constructive Activity Scale for Scoring the Recall Protocol

Current quantitative scoring methods of the recall protocol reward or penalize the reader for the presence or absence of previously determined and weighted propositions in his or her recalled text. Current rating systems do not reward attempts at paraphrasing or summarizing information—two important skills indicative of deep-level or active processing. They also ignore the reader's relevant

elaborations aimed at assimilating and subsequently integrating text-based information into his or her cognitive structure.

The distinction between a less active and a more active pursuit of knowledge has become an important theme in instructional psychology (Resnick 1989). Such concepts as explanation-driven learning (Brown & Kane 1988), meaning imposition (Resnick 1987), mindfulness (Salomon & Globerson 1987), and intentional learning (Bereiter & Scardamalia 1989) are used to characterize active learning in which more extensive or deeper constructive activity occurs.

In addition, studies in effective text processing suggest that readers need to encode both relational and individual-item information and that "different types of materials and processing activities encourage encoding of different types of information" (Einstein et al. 1990: 570).

The cornerstone of this framework is the assumption that the two types of information are essential for the production of good free recall (Hunt & Einstein 1981). Einstein et al. (1990) define individual-item information as being that which is specific to propositions or individual concepts. Relational information, on the other hand, represents the integration or organization of the individual propositions within the text.

Rating the Recall Protocol with the Constructive Activity Scale

This author proposes a scale that represents four levels (two low and two high) of cognitive constructive activity involved in comprehension and learning from text. The two low-level or less active constructive activities involve restating/retelling text information or making inferences based on the surface features of the text. The two high-level—more active constructive activities—involve problem-solving activities exemplified in carrying out meaningful inferencing, problem solving, information reconciliation, assimilation, and integration.

The proposed scale is quantitative in nature but has provision for analyzing readers' recalls qualitatively. It is adapted from Chan et al.'s (1992) scale for cognitive constructive activity in learning from text. The four levels are (1) prepropositional/fragmented associations, (2) knowledge/details retelling, (3) assimilation, and (4) problem solving and integration. The examples used in this article are taken from recall protocols of beginning U.S. students learning Arabic as a foreign language (AFL).

Level 1: Prepropositional/Fragmented Associations

A rating of 1 is assigned to responses that depend on isolated words or fragmented phrases and do not show an understanding of the text at a propositional level. Overextended inferences, associations of irrelevant personal knowledge, comments, and responses involving associative reactions to words or brief fragments that do not deal directly with the text vocabulary word are assigned 1. For example, the text statement "He used to watch a film once a week at the Radio City

theater in downtown Cairo" was recalled by one student as "When he was studying in Cairo, he would listen to a program from Radio City." Notice that this reader has reacted to "Radio City," which he interpreted as a radio station and accordingly recalled "listen to a program" although the verb *watched* and the noun *theater* are clear in the text statement. Interrogative fragments or responses that question the meaning of isolated words out of context are also assigned 1. All responses of this type show minimal, low-level, or less active constructive activity on the part of the reader. This level is characterized by an item-by-item approach to text processing.

Level 2: Knowledge/Details Retelling

It is argued that cases in which the reader matches the surface features of text propositions with what he or she knows set off a process of knowledge retelling. For example, the text statement "Samir came from Syria and studied at Georgetown University" was recalled by a reader who is clearly familiar with the geography of the Middle East as "The person is from Syria. He is studying at the university. The person is from Damascus, the capital of Syria. Damascus is an old city and has many people." Notice that the word *Syria* has prompted the reader to start the process of telling information that he knows but that is not part of the text statement.

This association of knowledge normally involves no clarification or elaboration of the text meaning and does not reflect how things have taken place. A rating of 2 is assigned to verbatim or near-verbatim paraphrases of the text (detail recalling) and knowledge recalling. Whereas associations at Level 1 are cued by isolated words, Level 2 associations generally involve the association of topically related personal knowledge cued by a text proposition. Although the text is processed at a deeper level, that level is still shallow. Level 2 propositions normally lack integration of text information with personal knowledge and are characterized by dominance of either text-based or knowledge-based information (mostly text-based information).

Level 3: Assimilation

Propositions that show evidence of text-based representation of information are assigned Level 3. Propositions that involve paraphrasing and that add simple relevant elaborations provide evidence of text comprehension and show a grasp of what the text says but fail to reconcile the text message with the accepted or more dominant notions in the field. In other words, propositions at Level 3 suggest the reader's ability to construct text representation with no attempt made to use the assimilated knowledge to transform or reformulate his or her cognitive structure.

For example, a reader paraphrased a large part of a text—a cover letter sent by a doctoral student to the chairperson of the English department at the University of Kuwait—by the following sentence "He is writing to Kuwait University looking for a position in the coming year in the Department of Foreign Languages." This reader is showing comprehension of textual information as is evidenced in his brief recall.

Level 4: Problem Solving and Integration

Propositions that reflect attempts to reconcile and integrate text information into the reader's existing knowledge structure are scored as level 4. Such attempts are indicative of a high-level problem-solving constructive activity in which inconsistencies or discrepancies between text-based and knowledge-based information are resolved by means of hypothesis generation. For example, one of the statements in a text on Egypt reads as follows: "Egypt depends on the waters of the Nile River. The Roman historian Herodotus described Egypt as 'the gift of the Nile.'" A student recalled this statement as follows "Egypt depends on the waters of the Nile. Herodotus (by the way, a Greek historian, not Roman) described Egypt as 'the gift of the Nile.'" This reader has identified and resolved a discrepancy between text information and his personal knowledge. This response may be referred to as *evaluative response*. At Level 4, readers use a multiplicity of relations to attend to new information, resulting in the formation of new connections. Attempts made to use knowledge-based information to explain text statements are rewarded, as are attempts to relate and integrate earlier statements in the text to the current statement (relational information). In a different text, a statement reads as follows: "The student came to the U.S. to study at The Ohio State University." Earlier in the text, we are told that the student comes from a poor family. The reader recalled the following: "The student is relating how he came to study at The Ohio State University. He must have received a scholarship." In attempting to make sense of text information, this reader related earlier information in the text and formulated a hypothesis about the student's ability to study at a U.S. university despite the financial status of his family.

Conclusion

In sum, recalling or retelling important and relevant information directly stated or inferred from a text indicates the reader's comprehension of textual information. Connecting and integrating text information and the reader's background knowledge, summarizing statements or making generalizations, and reacting to text information all indicate metacognitive awareness and strategy use. Appropriate use of language in the recall, awareness of the structure of the text, and the ability to organize the recall in an acceptable format indicate facility with language.

The present rating scale is an attempt to account for both knowledge- and text-driven facets of reading comprehension as well as the interaction among the reader, text, and author. The failure to do so defeats one of the major purposes of reading, namely communicating meaning to the reader. The proposed rating scale, moreover, rewards the author of the recall protocol for his or her attempts to construct text representation or situation models of the text. After all, learning from the text involves more than the comprehension of additional information in the text; it involves active construction of new understanding and new knowledge (Chan et al. 1992).

In addition to that, the proposed system serves an important pedagogical purpose by enhancing the process of dynamic assessment. Misunderstandings,

misconceptualizations, gaps, distortions, and elaborations in the reader's protocol provide great insights to the teacher or the researcher about text-processing strategies. Detecting and delineating such insights can help reveal problems that impede comprehension.

We are beginning to explore how current theories that are advanced from cognitive psychology and information-processing perspectives can be best utilized in reshaping our pedagogical and assessment practices. The proposed scale for calibrating and rating the recall protocol is a potentially important tool for assessing reading comprehension. This is consonant with the assertion of the need to ground comprehension measures in models and theories of learning. There is also a need, however, to demonstrate empirically the reliability, validity, and usefulness of the proposed scale to understand more fully the process of learning and reading comprehension.

Notes

1. Comparing the performance of nonnative English speakers on a standard cloze passage and a scrambled version of the same passage, Chihara et al. (1977) concluded that cloze tests are sensitive to discourse constraints across sentences. Further, the effects of these constraints are incremented with an increase in proficiency. D. C. Anderson (1980) concluded that cloze tests measure sensitivity to both cohesive relationships and sentence-level syntax. Bachman's (1982) results suggest that a modified cloze passage, using rational deletions, is capable of measuring both syntactic and discourse-level relationships in a text, and that this advantage may outweigh considerations of reduced redundancy that underlie random deletion procedures.
2. Alderson (1979), on the basis of results obtained by systematically varying passage difficulty, scoring criteria, and deletion ration, concluded that cloze tests measure only lower-order proficiency skills. Shanahan, Kamil, and Tobin (1982) found that cloze scores were so weakly influenced by the use of intersentential information and that subjects performed about equally well whether they had well-organized or poorly organized cloze passages. Their results suggest that a cloze test does not usually measure intersentential information integration. Kamil et al. (1986) arrived at results that parallel those of Shanahan et al. (1982). They found that the effect size associated with scrambling the passage was approximately a 2 percent advantage in performance for the normal passage, the implication being that a cloze test is insensitive to intersentential integration of information, a critical component of higher-level comprehension.
3. According to Kintsch and van Dijk (1978), recall measures that fail to take differential semantic importance of recalled ideas or propositions into account do not really measure both the quantity and the quality of retention. All evidence, they add, points to the primary value of retaining higher-level propositions and to the decreasing importance of retaining propositions as they become less and less crucial to the overall meaning of the text.
4. According to the Johnson (1970) analysis system, a reading passage is divided into pausal units during a normally paced oral reading. Each pausal unit or proposition is weighted on a scale of 1 to 4 according to its importance to the passage content, 1 being least important and 4 most important. The weighting usually reflects the mean of the ratings given to each proposition by proficient readers.
5. From this perspective, Berkemeyer (1989) argues that the scoring instrument should focus not on what students do or do not recall but on what they attempt to recall or to integrate into their protocol but fail to do so correctly.

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12
The Iowa Critical Languages Program:
Developing Teachers of Critical Languages for Secondary Schools

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Introduction

Since 1986, Ford Foundation support has enabled the University of Iowa to conduct a two-part program to develop and place outstanding teachers of Chinese, Japanese, and Russian in the public school systems within the state of Iowa. The Foundation's support has also enabled the University to provide intensive preservice instruction to teachers of these critical languages, including summer language programs, a year abroad, and specialized student-teaching experiences. The second part of the program enables the University to provide subventions to school districts interested in adding a critical language to their secondary curriculum. The subventions enable the participating school districts to support the development of the critical language curriculum through, for example, the purchase of such items as personal computers, software, and other language-specific materials that facilitate the meaningful instruction of these languages.

The overriding concept of the Iowa Critical Languages Program (ICLP) is to develop highly motivated preservice teachers, provide outstanding education in these languages, offer specialized supervision of their pedagogical development, and support them once they begin their teaching responsibilities within the school system.

This article will provide a summary of the process involved in developing secondary teachers of the critical languages and seeding the instruction of these languages at the secondary school level. Also included is an explanation of the formative evaluation instrument that was used to help guide the development of

teachers in these languages. Augmenting the presentation of the ICLP teacher-preparation model are reflections on the type of research needed to facilitate the efforts to enable the less commonly taught languages to become more commonly taught in the secondary schools.

Teacher Selection and Development

The first part of the ICLP began with the development of secondary teachers of Chinese, Japanese, and Russian. At the present time, the University of Iowa supports twenty participants, either as preservice or as inservice teachers. These participants were selected on a competitive basis. The ICLP is advertised in language journals and in selected universities and colleges, and bulletins announcing the program are placed at national language conferences. The participants are selected on the basis of their scholarship, their interest in teaching, and personal interviews. No native speakers of the three languages can be candidates for the ICLP, because the intent of the program is to develop proficient nonnative speakers and teachers of these critical languages.

Cohorts for the program are selected in January for the year that they are to begin studying; typically there are two participants for each language in one cohort. The typical participant spends the first summer in intensive language study. The students then return to campus for more language study and begin their teacher-education coursework. The second year of the program, the preservice teachers spend a year in the target language country. The final year of preparation is divided among pedagogical preparation, target language development, and student teaching.

Content-Area Preparation

The content-area preparation of the preservice ICLP participant is intense and varied, including coursework both on the University of Iowa campus and at selected universities in the target language countries. Many of the participants are creating new paths not only by electing to teach these less commonly taught languages, but while pursuing target language expertise, they have found themselves in universities that rarely see the North American student. (One participant found herself the only blonde, female, Anglo student at Liaoning Normal University in China.) The most creative challenge awaits the participant, however, when they begin preparation to teach and create curriculum for secondary instruction of languages that have yet to have a formal and established pedagogy. Often the newly arrived teachers are "100 percent of the department" with no colleagues who share their interest, enthusiasm, and expertise in their language. Without the huge storehouse of textbooks, audiovisual materials, and handouts accumulated over decades of French, German, and Spanish instruction, the critical language instructor must make do with poorly designed textbooks, generally not targeted for a secondary school student population, or materials that they spend long hours to

create. Because their classes are generally small, the critical language teachers are often criticized by their colleagues for having a light teaching load when, in fact, they are solely responsible for creating a multilevel curriculum that deals with not only the instruction of complex linguistic and written systems, but also cultural concepts that are perceived as being strange or even bizarre by average North American students.

Teacher-Education Preparation

Jorden and Lambert (1991) as well as Moore et al. (1992) stated in their reports on the status of teaching in the less commonly taught languages that one of the more important variables in the continuation of instruction of these languages at the precollegiate level is the development of qualified teachers of Chinese, Japanese, and Russian specifically for the secondary school. Keeping this variable in mind, pedagogical preparation for the ICLP preservice teacher has a two-part format. The candidate has language-specific pedagogical courses and general foreign language education coursework. Each participating language department requires the ICLP preservice teacher to take at least one course in language-specific pedagogy as well as an applied linguistics course. In the general foreign language education coursework, the preservice teacher experiences a lecture-demonstration course in secondary methods and a practicum course that involves micro-teaching as well as secondary classroom observations. It is hoped that within this coursework the preservice teachers will begin to develop the necessary pedagogical knowledge to help them teach their target language meaningfully in the secondary school environment.

The foreign language education profession is well aware that the pedagogical knowledge base for the most commonly taught languages is at the novice level, and unfortunately the knowledge base for the critical languages is less than that. The one fact that is known is that without the training such as that conducted in the ICLP, there is potential for problems as soon as the new teachers begin their assignment. Walker (1989) generalizes that a typical critical language teacher is not trained in a school of education and, therefore, does not have a common core of training or experience with colleagues who teach the more commonly taught languages. He also stresses that these teachers can bring with them certain convictions about language content and pedagogy that are at odds with the goals of both the institution and the student body, thus bringing to light yet another source of division between the critical language teacher and colleagues. By supplying a common core of experience in foreign language education as well as language-specific pedagogy, it is hoped that a spirit of professionalism has been instilled in the teachers so that they can be comfortable discussing a range of educational topics with their French-, German-, and Spanish-teaching colleagues. In this way, teachers of the more commonly taught languages can be educated as well, so that their critical language counterparts are no longer viewed as "exotic" or "on the fringe" of mainline instruction but instead can be accepted as valuable contributing colleagues.

Another teacher-development objective that the university-based experience hopes to achieve is to make the student aware of the need to be developing a *depth*

of subject-matter knowledge. This means the ability to have rich examples of elements in their target language and to have quality as well as quantity of links within their language. It is also desired that the student be developing a *breadth* of pedagogical knowledge, and this implies the ability, possibly unique to good teachers, to understand their subject on other people's terms and the ability to influence other people's understanding and proficiency within the subject (Shulman 1987). It is also desired that the preservice teachers come to understand that pedagogical tools are dynamic elements evolving every day in the foreign language classroom and that they must learn how to monitor their own development. Furthermore, an objective in the teacher-development program is to give the preservice foreign language teacher a clinical understanding of how the language-teaching process requires a specific type of instructional organization, presentation, interaction, and evaluation for meaningful learning to take place.

Field Experiences

To enable the first cohort of practice teachers in the ICLP to have meaningful field experiences, it was necessary to create two different field and supervisory mechanisms within the established student-teaching curriculum.

The first creation was the student-teacher internship. This internship differed from the usual practice-teaching model in that the student teacher became *the* critical language teacher in a school district. This internship was necessary for only one language, Chinese. Prior to the Ford Foundation Grant, there had been no Chinese language instruction at the secondary level within the state. The internship experience placed novice ICLP Chinese teachers as the teachers in the classroom for the first semester of their contract with the collaborating school district. The cooperating teacher was either a teacher of another foreign language or the building principal. The intern teachers thus faced the unique experience of not having language-specific classroom mentoring during their daily teaching tasks.

The second creation was the Foreign Language Teacher Education Center, an off-campus center that moved the professoriate, the student teachers, and often their cooperating teachers to the campus of the secondary schools involved with the program and away from the University of Iowa campus. The creation of this center was necessary for logistic purposes because the majority of the initial field placement cities were 150 miles away from the University of Iowa campus. Taking the teacher-development program to the practice site is not unique in our College of Education, as there are esteemed examples of this practice in both science and math education. The added benefit in the creation of this center was the professoriate's ability to have more interaction with the cooperating teachers during the student-teacher supervisory process.

It has been discovered that these unique field experiences—the internship and the teacher-education center—created an extremely confident, necessarily independent, and highly creative novice teacher. All these qualities are necessary in the development of a corps of qualified secondary teachers of the critical languages.

Inservice ICLP Teacher Development

The University continues to provide the practicing teachers under the ICLP umbrella with inservice development experiences that are target-language-specific. Throughout the academic year, the novice teachers have frequent contact with the University, which offers a variety of support services that include workshops, materials acquisition, coursework, and classroom visitations.[1]

For the past two years, members of the ICLP have received target-language-specific pedagogical workshops coupled with on-site classroom visits from our workshop directors and consultants. A goal in actively participating in the development of the critical language programs within the public schools is to enrich the collaboration between the schools and the University of Iowa. As critical language programs begin to grow and secondary students enter college with aspirations of taking more language, this collaboration becomes even more important. Even at this early date, there is evidence that suggests that articulation between high school and university programs may be lacking. A recent survey of pre- and post-secondary institutions teaching Japanese states that "the Japanese pre-collegiate curricula depend largely on idiosyncratic decisions made by individual instructors, who may be inexperienced and the products of very limited training" (Jorden & Lambert 1991: 179), while a recent survey of Chinese instruction in high schools revealed

> a lack of consensus among teachers on what the ideal curriculum should be; on which skills should be emphasized; on the choice of phonetic transcription systems; on the type and number of characters that students should learn; on the selection and timing of specific linguistic patterns to be taught; and on the proper emphasis on and way of teaching Chinese culture. (Moore 1992: 119)

Formative Program Evaluation

The goals of the ICLP have also presented a unique problem in assessing teacher development. The initial problem was in creating an instrument that could help evaluate the teacher-education program for the future ICLP teachers as well as help develop an understanding of the specific situation of the critical languages preservice teacher in the public schools in contrast to, for example, the German teacher or any teacher of a standard European dialect. The problem of assessing the development of the ICLP teachers was further complicated by the fact that there is neither the research nor the long-term experiential base from which to evaluate critical language teachers in this environment. Generally speaking, much of the research that has been conducted involving U.S. learners of the critical languages has concentrated on the various processes involved in reading the orthographies that represent these languages (Everson forthcoming).

The traditional, somewhat indirect, method of evaluating a teacher's development, that of evaluating their students' language ability, had to be discarded. A formative instrument to help provide an understanding of what it means to teach

a noncognate language in the secondary schools of Iowa was needed. There is no ready-made instrument available for this task, and there is nothing in teacher-assessment literature that even speaks to it. There is a body of literature, however, on an instrument used in second language acquisition that describes a learning situation from the learner's point of view and helps the researcher have access to domains that only the learner can provide. That instrument is the language learner's diary.

A diary study is a first-person account of a learning or teaching experience documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analyzed for recurring patterns or salient events. For the purposes of this article, the terms *diary* and *journal* are used interchangeably. Here the term *diary study*, however, has a meaning that is intentionally different from its use in some of the early case studies in second language (L2) acquisition research literature (e.g., Hatch 1978), in which adults kept written records of child L2 learners' linguistic output. In contrast, here the term emphasizes first-person authorship.

As a research genre, diary studies are part of a growing body of literature on classroom research (Allwright 1983; Allwright & Bailey 1990; Bailey 1985; Chaudron 1988; Gaies 1983; Long 1983; van Lier 1984). Diary studies are examples of participant observation that fall within the anthropological approach to classroom research in the hermeneutic tradition (Ochsner 1979; Long 1983). The emphasis here, however, is not so much on diary studies as a mode of research but rather as a potential tool for understanding and improving teacher preparation.

The use of journals in teacher-preparation courses is motivated by three current ideas in education. The first is the importance of the connection between writing and learning. In this respect, writing can be viewed as a discovery process, a way to explore ideas, generate and connect ideas, change preconceived notions, and connect abstract ideas and experiences. Journals have been used increasingly in content courses and in writing courses to exploit this writing–learning connection. It has been suggested that when teachers ask students to introspect about learning, comment on the class, and communicate about what they are learning, students get more involved in the course and make connections between themselves and the course material.

A second idea that motivates the use of journals is that writing is a social activity as well as a cognitive activity (Cooper 1986). Writing is seen not as a solitary pursuit but as discourse among people with shared interests. Student teachers are exploring new ideas, but they are also exploring the ways in which members of the language-teaching profession talk and write about these ideas. Journals help student language teachers become members of the language-teaching discourse community by giving them opportunities to write as members of the community and to get responses from teachers and supervisors who are active and practiced members. These exchanges give students both a real audience within the community and a developing sense of being a member of the community.

The third idea is the current focus in language teaching on a communicative approach that implies more learner involvement in the learning process (e.g., Breen 1985; Richards & Rodgers 1986). Teacher educators committed to a communicative approach emphasize the need for second language students to be active

language learners, to get more involved in the learning process by taking responsibility for their role in it. Student teachers are encouraged to find ways to use learner input in the curriculum, to focus their classes to meet learner needs, and to make their teaching more process-oriented than product-oriented. In spite of this emphasis, in teacher-preparation courses the predominant mode of instruction tends to be the traditional teacher-centered format, with teacher-generated curricula and an emphasis on evaluated products as a measurement of learning. In other words, the actual teacher-education process is not in accord with the method it recommends. The use of journals in teacher-education courses makes preparation more closely parallel to the type of teaching expected of student teachers.

Keeping a Language-Teaching Diary

The procedures for keeping a diary are relatively simple, technically speaking, but the process does require discipline and patience. The steps involved in doing a diary study are depicted in the works of Bailey and Ochsner (1983). It should be noted that diary studies, both as qualitative research and as teacher-preparation tools, are still evolving.

The steps described by Bailey and Ochsner (1983) can be followed with more or less devotion, depending on the individual diarist's purposes and personality. For instance, some diary studies have not included a language-learning or teacher history. Compiling such an account is particularly useful for preservice teachers because, in many cases, we teach as we have been taught. The patterns that emerge in a teacher's current classroom behavior may have been formed or at least clearly modeled long ago. The diarist systematically records events, details, and feelings about the current language-teaching experience in the diary. Then the diarist revises the journal entries for the public version of the diary, clarifying meaning in the process. Some diarists have not rewritten their uncensored private journals for public review. In actual practice, events that are embarrassing or painful when they occur often lose their sting after weeks of reflection and can be discussed openly and objectively in the analysis. Student teachers, however, can be especially sensitive to criticism and perceived failure. Even if the students choose not to edit their private journals, it is suggested that they remove or staple shut any pages they don't want read.

The main point is that the original journal entries must be candid if the diarist is to benefit from reviewing them. The novice teacher must feel free to reflect, experiment, criticize, doubt, express frustration, and raise questions in the journal. Otherwise its main benefits in teacher development and insights about teaching will be negated.

Benefits of Using Diaries

There have been several benefits from using this approach as an instrument in the formative evaluation of the ICLP. Having the preservice teacher's personal

essay on his or her language-learning history is important because in the essay frequently the teachers expose their implicit language-teaching behaviors. Referring to the essay has been very beneficial in monitoring the growth and in the understanding of preservice teachers' actions. For example, when preservice teacher X wrote:[2]

> I feel for language learning to be successful, the student's interest must be kept high or the student must be challenged in some way. I feel this point was missing from my high school language learning experience. I know I simply had to memorize the new vocabulary for each lesson in order to do well in the class. Rarely was old vocabulary incorporated into the current lesson, or was the student expected to answer a question outside of the day's given activity. There didn't seem to be any incorporation of learned material to begin forming a real "language."

And when preservice teacher Y shared:

> My experiences with language have not always been as superb as that first semester because of the many cumbersome tasks I was asked to do. For example, I felt that the language tapes were difficult to understand, and I was frustrated at having to answer the questions in the workbooks that followed the tapes. The pauses between questions were not long enough on the tapes to enable me to demonstrate my knowledge on paper. After a while, I copied the answers from the back of the book and just leisurely listened to the tapes for comprehension and to hear the target language spoken.

From these comments the teacher educator is able to develop some understanding of the preservice teachers' beliefs about the teaching/learning process. And later, of course, during their actual student-teaching experience, it is very handy to be able to go back and point out to the student teachers how they felt about the very practices to which they were now subjecting their own students. Furthermore, monitoring pedagogical questions in the diary, the student teacher can receive help almost immediately when a solvable problem is articulated:

> When *sensi* M was giving the speed reading test, I noticed a few students were simply giving up and not even trying to complete the assignment. What can I do to help them? (preservice teacher Z)

At this time, the supervising professors were able to suggest that perhaps the students who were having the hardest time had not yet learned their vocabulary to the point where they could actually use and apply it. Theoretically speaking, the students' attention was still off message building and, consequently, comprehension. At this point, the speed-reading drill was just a waste of time and a frustration to the students. The professors also suggested that the student teacher stress the purpose of this activity, which is to push the students and help expand their reading. After all, what is known about first and second language reading is that better readers process text faster. It also forces them to adopt skim/scan patterns, something they are loath to do in a language that seems to foster word-by-word reading.

Besides the pedagogical benefits to journal keeping, there are, as one student summarized it, unexpected benefits in using the technique in preservice teacher development:

> Whenever I've had a question, I could always put it in my journal, and you answered it. I could never ask a question in seminar. I don't like to talk in class, and often I was alone in the teaching world and there was no one else to ask, but I knew that you didn't have time to observe me every week, but I knew you answer anything in my journal. (preservice teacher X)

Hence, the journal becomes a safe place for preservice teachers to reflect and to ask questions about the teaching environment that often they are embarrassed or too shy to ask in public.

Diaries can also promote autonomous learning. After the student-teaching experience, the novice Japanese teachers, like many other language teachers, are on their own. They need to develop the resources to aid them in the process of maintaining pedagogical awareness and language proficiency. This is a very difficult task indeed, but it must be developed during the teacher-preparation process or the teachers will fossilize with the knowledge presented to them in their undergraduate coursework and be unable to grow as professionals.

A student teacher wrote in his diary, "How, when, and how much kanji should I teach?" The professoriate asked him to consider this question: What determines a Japanese reading curriculum—how many kanji the students know, or what they are able to do with a text, no matter how small it may be? While obviously a student's reading ability and number of mastered kanji will be highly correlated, it is important for our teachers to understand that "my students know 250 characters" can tell them very little about a reading program. Perhaps more probing questions are those that ask how much a student reads outside of class, how much rereading of previously read material is accomplished, and how much students are trained to monitor and evaluate their own comprehension while reading. This teacher's thinking was redirected to a more process-oriented approach to reading instruction. Additionally, he was directed to the *Japanese Language Teacher Newsletter*[3] and strongly advised to subscribe to it and other journals, as they would be able to help him grow as a professional.

Student teachers frequently lack confidence, and the safety of the journal can be used as an avenue to affirm the novice teacher's ideas—especially if they conflict with the cooperating teachers' policies. When a student teacher presented in his journal a detailed list of how he would change the classroom atmosphere, his insights on classroom management were applauded, and he was given the assurance that he would be successful when he was on his own even though his ideas greatly conflicted with his cooperating teacher's.

The journals have helped create a more productive student-teaching seminar because they allow the professoriate to combine the commonly expressed concerns of the student teachers with observations of their classes and discuss with them issues that relate directly to both their visible teaching and their less visible emotions that relate to teaching. The journals have given both the supervisor and the student teacher a new lens to view the teaching process.

Additionally, the journal has provided the inservice ICLP teachers with a safe place to record ideas about teaching and learning. Interestingly enough, at the end of their preservice experience—sometimes weeks or months later—ICLP teachers have communicated a desire to discuss issues they had with an activity or a method that they felt were unimportant or that they were too shy to discuss at the time of their student-teaching experience. They have been glad to have a record of these thoughts in their private diary, and now with some distance from the stress of student teaching, they feel more secure in discussing a new ideal or presenting a new technique. Their ideas are welcome, and many of them are being expressed in local and national foreign language teaching conferences. Through their active participation in the foreign language teaching profession, these young critical languages teachers have given evidence that they are growing and developing as professionals, and hence the ICLP goal of developing a corps of highly motivated secondary teachers is being met.

Notes

1. Besides contact with the co-authors, the ICLP participants have benefited from contact with Assistant Professor Tom Garza from the University of Texas in Russian language pedagogy, ICLP director Professor Ray Parrot of the University of Iowa, and the ICLP coordinator, Mrs. Donna Grunstad, of the Iowa City Community Schools.
2. All quotes are taken from actual student journals. Permission to use these journals was given, but the students were told they would not be identified by name.
3. *The Japanese Language Teacher Newsletter* is an excellent source for information on current clinical pedagogical questions. It is available by subscription from University High School, 1212 West Springfield Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801.

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